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PART 2 : BY AILEEN GARLAND

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PART 2

BY AILEEN GARLAND

Illustrated by
ROBERT BANKS AND JOSEPH ROSENTHAL

BASED ON
A First Book of Canadian History
BY W. STEWART WALLACE

THE MACMILLAN COMPANY

OF CANADA LIMITED

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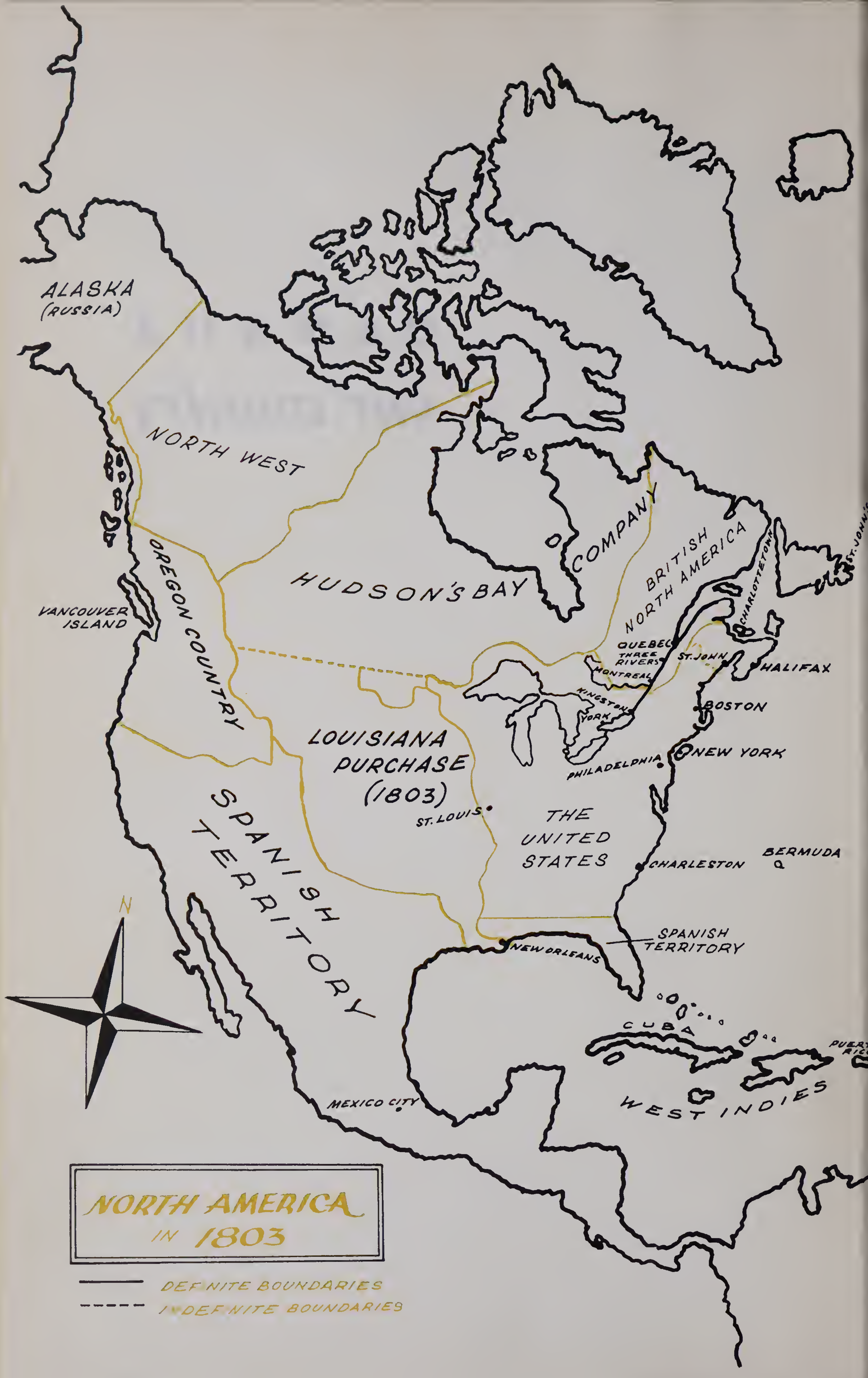


NORTH AMERICA IN 1803

ALASKA
(RUSSIA)
NORTH WEST
HUDSON'S BAY
COMPANY
BRITISH
NORTH AMERICA
OREGON COUNTRY
VANCOUVER
ISLAND
LOUISIANA
PURCHASE
(1803)
ST. LOUIS
THE
UNITED
STATES
SPANISH
TERRITORY
SPANISH
TERRITORY
QUEBEC
THREE
RIVERS
MONTREAL
KINGSTON
YORK
ST. JOHN
HALIFAX
CHARLOTTETOWN
ST. JOHN'S
BOSTON
NEW YORK
PHILADELPHIA
CHARLESTON
BERMUDA
NEW ORLEANS
CUBA
PUERT
RICO
WEST INDIES
MEXICO CITY
N
DEFINITE BOUNDARIES
INDEFINITE BOUNDARIES

I. *America in 1800*

1. A Quick Glance at Our Continent

> "Wide the wood recedes,
> And towns shoot up, and fertile realms are tilled;
> The land is full of harvests and green meads."
> William Cullen Bryant: *The Ages*

Last year we studied the story of America up to 1800. We found that between 1492 when Columbus came to the West Indies and 1811 when David Thompson reached the mouth of the Columbia River, hardy explorers had discovered almost all the great lakes and rivers of the continent. The search for a route to Asia, the quest for fish and fur, a determination to worship as they believed right, and a desire to own their own land had brought many people to America. Settlers from Europe had made new homes along the St. Lawrence, in the Maritimes, and along the Atlantic Coast, and sturdy pioneers had pushed their way into the rich lands beyond the Allegheny Mountains.

In 1763 France ceded Canada to Britain, and just twenty years later Britain was forced to recognize the independence of the Thirteen Colonies. Loyalists flocked to Canada and opened up two new regions, Upper Canada and New Brunswick.

In 1800 Britain's colonies in America included some islands in the West Indies, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, Lower Canada, and Upper Canada. Since slavery had not yet been abolished in the British Empire, the West Indies still produced quantities of sugar at low cost and were considered Britain's most valuable colonies in the New World. The Hudson's Bay Company controlled the vast area drained by rivers flowing into Hudson Bay, and the North West Company of Montreal had established a number of posts in the west and was looking beyond the Rockies. Although Spain had recognized Britain's claim to Vancouver Island, no British had established trading-posts or homes there. The west was still the land of the Indian and the fur-trader.

THE UNITED STATES REACHES OUT TO THE WEST

In 1800 Spain surrendered Louisiana to France and in 1803 France sold it to the United States. Thus the territory west of the Mississippi was opened to the Americans for trade and settlement.

St. Louis, on the west bank of the Mississippi, was the largest settlement in the west. French fur-traders had enjoyed a profitable trade there for many years. When the United States gained possession of Louisiana, St. Louis became the gateway for the exploration and settlement of the west. But in 1800 there were only a few American fur-traders west of the Mississippi.

It was not until 1804 that the Americans built Fort Dearborn where the great city of Chicago now stands. In the same year, John Kinzie, the first white settler of Chicago, brought his family from Detroit to the trading-post he had built near the fort.

So we see that it was just around the turn of the century that the United States began to reach out to the west.

GOVERNMENT

Both Canada and the United States were very young countries in 1800 and inexperienced in government. The citizens of Upper and Lower Canada had enjoyed the right to elect a legislative assembly for only nine years. George Washington, the first President of the United States, took office only eleven years before the end of the century.

LIFE IN AMERICA

Life in America was very different from what it is to-day. There were no steamboats, no railways, no motor-cars, no airplanes, no telegraph lines, no telephones, no radios, and no television. There were few good roads, and none which modern drivers would consider satisfactory. Houses were lighted by candles and in most homes the cooking was done over the open fireplace.

There were, of course, great differences between life in the cities and larger towns and life on the frontier. In New York, Philadelphia, Boston, Charleston, Baltimore, and on the southern plantations, and in Halifax, Quebec, and Montreal, wealthy people built fine homes and had servants or slaves to do the hard work. On the frontier the people lived in rough log cabins and everyone in the family had to work hard to get enough food to keep alive.

Several universities had been established in the United States, but only one, Laval University of Quebec, in Canada. Few young men went to university except those who were preparing for the ministry, and no women attended. New England had established good schools at an early date, and there were schools in Lower Canada run by the Roman Catholic Church, but the majority of the children in both Canada and the United States did not go to school at all.

Now, let us take another look at America in 1800, beginning with our own province, Ontario.

2. Our Own Province in 1800

"We came to build, and building, a mighty structure grew,
And ever as we builded, builded better than we knew;
And through the darkening wilderness, lo! we were led in might.
Our log-heaps made a smoke by day, a pillared flame by night.
Now, when across the continent we've seen our task expand,
To our children's children and their children's children we
do bequeath this land."

ROBERT K. KERNIGHAN: *Pioneer's Anthem*

What was happening in your community in 1800? Were there any people living there? If there were, what did they do for a living? Were they soldiers, fur-traders, farmers? Where did they come from? Why did they come? What kind of houses did they build? What kind of roads? What were their amusements?

What was the first settlement called? How did it get its name? Many places in Ontario have had three or four names. For example, Cobourg was called Amherst, then Hamilton, was nicknamed Hardscrabble because it was hard to prepare the land for crops, and finally, in 1819, given the name Cobourg.

What is the oldest building in your community? Did your community once have industries which have since disappeared? When was the first school built? the first church? The first Protestant church in Upper Canada was the Old Mohawk Church, built by Joseph Brant and his tribesmen in 1785. It still stands, about two miles from the centre of Brantford. When was the first newspaper published? When did the railway come?

How did the farmers clear the land? sow and harvest their crops? How did their clothing, food, furniture, farm implements differ from ours?

Books and pamphlets have been written about many communities. If there is a library in your town you may find stories about your community. Sometimes descendants of pioneers can tell about the early days in stories that have been handed down in their families for generations. Some of them may have pictures or heirlooms which they treasure because their ancestors brought them to this country. Newspapers often print stories about early times, especially on anniversaries of the founding of the town. Museums have been established to collect and preserve the records, pictures, and some of the possessions of the early settlers. Visit a museum if you can and see what you can learn about how the pioneers in your district lived.

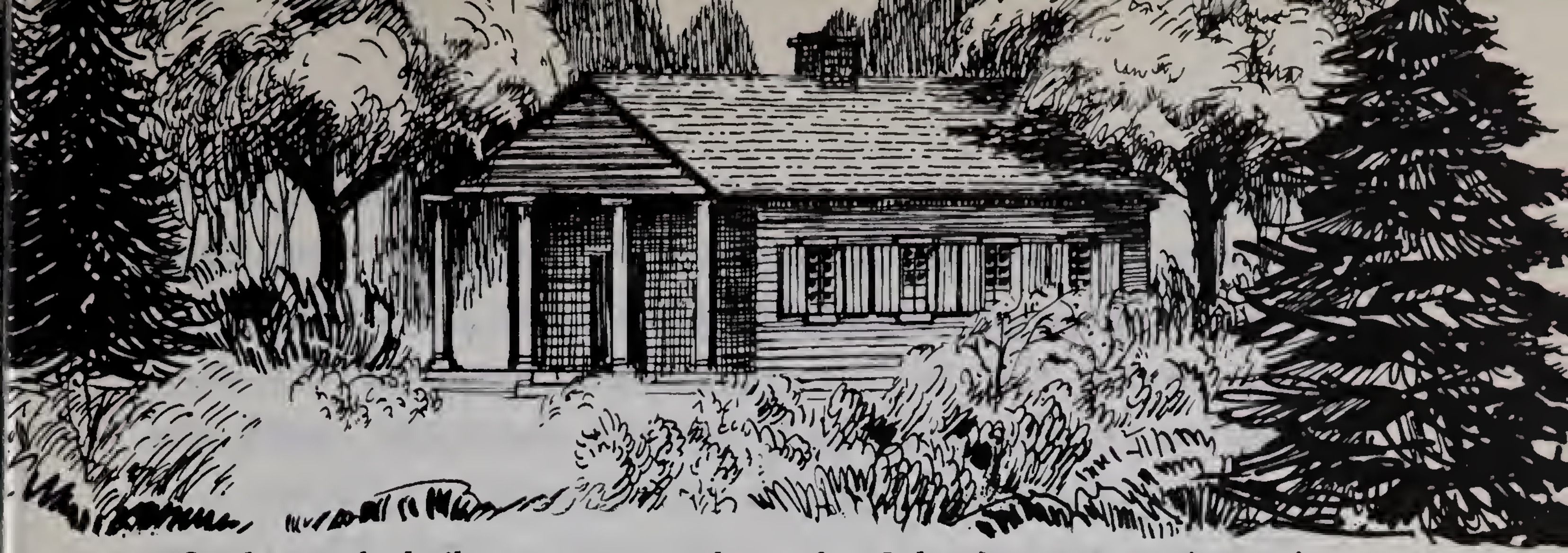
MUDDY LITTLE YORK

If you live in Toronto you will discover that the first fort on the site of Toronto was Fort Rouillé, situated at the foot of Dufferin Street. The inscription on the post in the Exhibition Grounds which marks the site states that Fort Rouillé was built in 1749, but historians have found a letter from the Governor of New France to Rouillé, the Colonial Minister, written in 1750, stating that he sent an officer there who built "a little palisaded fort" that summer.

The fort was usually called Fort Toronto, from a Huron word which means, according to some historians, "a place of meeting", but, according to others, "the carrying place". During the Seven Years War, the soldiers at Fort Rouillé were instructed by the governor that, if the English should come there, they were to burn the fort. This was done in 1759.

When Colonel and Mrs. Simcoe arrived in 1793, the ruins of the old French fort were still to be seen. An advance party of the Queen's Rangers was building an encampment just east of the present old fort in the Exhibition Grounds. The only other dwellings in sight were a few wigwams, belonging to some Mississauga Indians. Colonel Simcoe set aside the water-front of the western part of Toronto Bay for the garrison. The barracks were at the eastern end of the Exhibition Grounds, and the town was farther east, near the mouth of the Don. Simcoe gave the settlement the name York, in honour of the Duke of York.

Colonel Simcoe kept the Queen's Rangers busy putting up buildings and opening roads. A sawmill was put up on the Humber to provide boards for the building of the barracks. A powder magazine of squared hemlock logs was built, also a warehouse two storeys high in which to keep presents for the Indians. Two connected brick buildings, which were used for the sessions of the Legislative Assembly and the Legislative Council, were built on Front Street, then known as Palace Street, because these buildings were intended to be wings of the Lieutenant-Governor's residence. But Colonel and Mrs. Simcoe never lived there. Instead they lived in a combination summer residence and Government House built on the heights above the Don Valley, which they called Castle Frank, after their young son Frank. A visitor described Castle Frank as



Castle Frank, built as a summer home for Colonel and Mrs. Simcoe in 1794, was situated on the heights above the Don Valley, just north of the present St. James' Cemetery. This picture is based on a sketch made by Mrs. Simcoe, whose drawings provide us with our only views of York before 1800.

"formed of wood, in the figure of half a square, of one storey in height, with galleries in the centre. It is sufficiently commodious for the present state of the province, and is erected upon a bank of the lake, near the mouth of Toronto Bay."

No doubt little York looked primitive to visitors from Europe, but Mrs. Simcoe loved it so much that she cried all day when she left for England in 1796.

A French visitor to Upper Canada in 1795 reported that there were only about twelve houses in York. A few years later another traveller described it as "a dreary dismal place, not even possessing the characteristics of a village. There is no church, school house, nor in fact any of the ordinary signs of civilization. There is no inn; and those travellers who have no friends to go to, pitch a tent and live there while they remain." There may have been no inn then, but we know that Abner Miles' Inn was looking after travellers in 1798 and that William Cooper's Toronto Coffee House, which promised "genteel board and lodging", and Jordan's York Hotel were opened in 1801. Jordan's York Hotel, for many years the most fashionable hotel in Upper Canada, was on King Street near Ontario Street, only a short distance from the enormous Royal York Hotel which is to-day the most distinctive feature of Toronto's skyline.

Most of the visitors commented on the poor roads. Not only were the roads muddy in wet weather, but there were still many stumps in the roadways. In 1800 Parliament passed the Stump Act which required any man convicted of drunkenness to remove from the roads one or more of the stumps which made travel so difficult.

The first newspaper to be published in York, *The Upper Canada Gazette* or *American Oracle,* appeared October 4, 1798. It had been published at Newark until York became the capital of the province. The first town meeting was held in 1799, and the first post office established the same year. In 1800 the first jail was built and a law was passed requiring every householder to provide "two buckets for carrying water when any house shall be on fire", and also "two ladders, the one to reach to the eaves, and the other to be properly secured and fixed with hooks or bolts on the roof near the chimney". And it was in 1800 that the first white baby was born in the settlement.

York was, however, still a tiny settlement in the wilds. Bears and wolves were often seen nearby and occasionally they carried away sheep and pigs. In November, 1800, one citizen wrote, "There was a great depredation committed the night before last by a flock of wolves that came into the town. One man lost 17 sheep; several others lost in proportion."

York grew slowly. Even though it was the capital of Upper Canada, it was only a small village. In 1801 the records show that the population, including government officials and about two hundred soldiers of the Queen's Rangers, was only 336. By 1809 the number had increased to 577 and in 1820 it was 1,240. Kingston remained the largest town in Upper Canada for some years. In 1823 it had a population of 2,336, but when immigrants began to pour into Upper Canada during the late eighteen-twenties York gained first place. By 1833 York could boast that it had 6,094 inhabitants. The next year the name was changed to Toronto.

"Muddy Little York" was destined to become a great city, the second largest in Canada, and to remain the capital of Canada's largest and richest province.

GLENGARRY AND STORMONT COUNTIES

Did your ancestors settle in Glengarry or Stormont? If they did, the chances are that your name is Macdonell, or that some of your great-grandparents were Macdonells, for land grants there were given to eighty-four Loyalists of that name. Soon after the Loyalists came, the Reverend Alexander Macdonell, the leader of the Roman Catholic Loyalists, brought out another five hundred settlers, mostly Macdonells, and another group in 1792. In 1803 his successor, another Reverend Alexander Macdonell, looked after bringing another party, again "mostly Macdonells, and partly disbanded soldiers from the Glengarry Fencible Regiment". The Reverend Alexander Macdonell received 1,200 acres and every family he took to the colony was given 200 acres.

Glengarry and Stormont counties were first settled by soldiers of the First Battalion of Sir John Johnson's Royal Greens. Many of these men had come from Glengarry in Scotland. Some had fled from the old land because they had supported Bonnie Prince Charlie against the reigning king of England. Others, because of hard times in Scotland, had sought better living conditions in America. These Scots had come out to the Mohawk Valley to settle on the vast estates of Sir William Johnson, who owned no less than 200,000 acres there. Sir John Johnson, Sir William's son and heir, lost this property when he fought for Britain during the American War of Independence. Almost all the Scots remained loyal to Britain and many of them fought under Sir John in the Royal Greens. When the Royal Highland Emigrant Regiment was disbanded at the close of the war, many of its officers and men settled in Glengarry and along the north shore of the St. Lawrence.

Each private soldier had received a hundred acres on the water-front and two hundred acres farther back, and an additional fifty acres for his wife and each child. When the children came of age, they received an additional two hundred acres. Some of the officers were granted as much as five thousand acres. There was plenty of land and Britain wanted it settled.

Glengarry and Stormont contain good farming country, and when this became known in Scotland other settlers came — McLeods, Camerons, McPhersons, and Macmillans. Churches were built: the Roman Catholic "Blue Chapel", in 1787, and a Presbyterian Church in Lancaster in 1796. Many of the Scots wore the Highland kilt and spoke Gaelic, the language of the Highlands of Scotland. For many years the Presbyterian congregations would accept no minister who "did not have the Gaelic".

If your Loyalist ancestors settled in Stormont, you may have a Scottish name or you may have a German name, for a number of German Loyalists from New York State who had served in the Royal Greens were given land grants there.

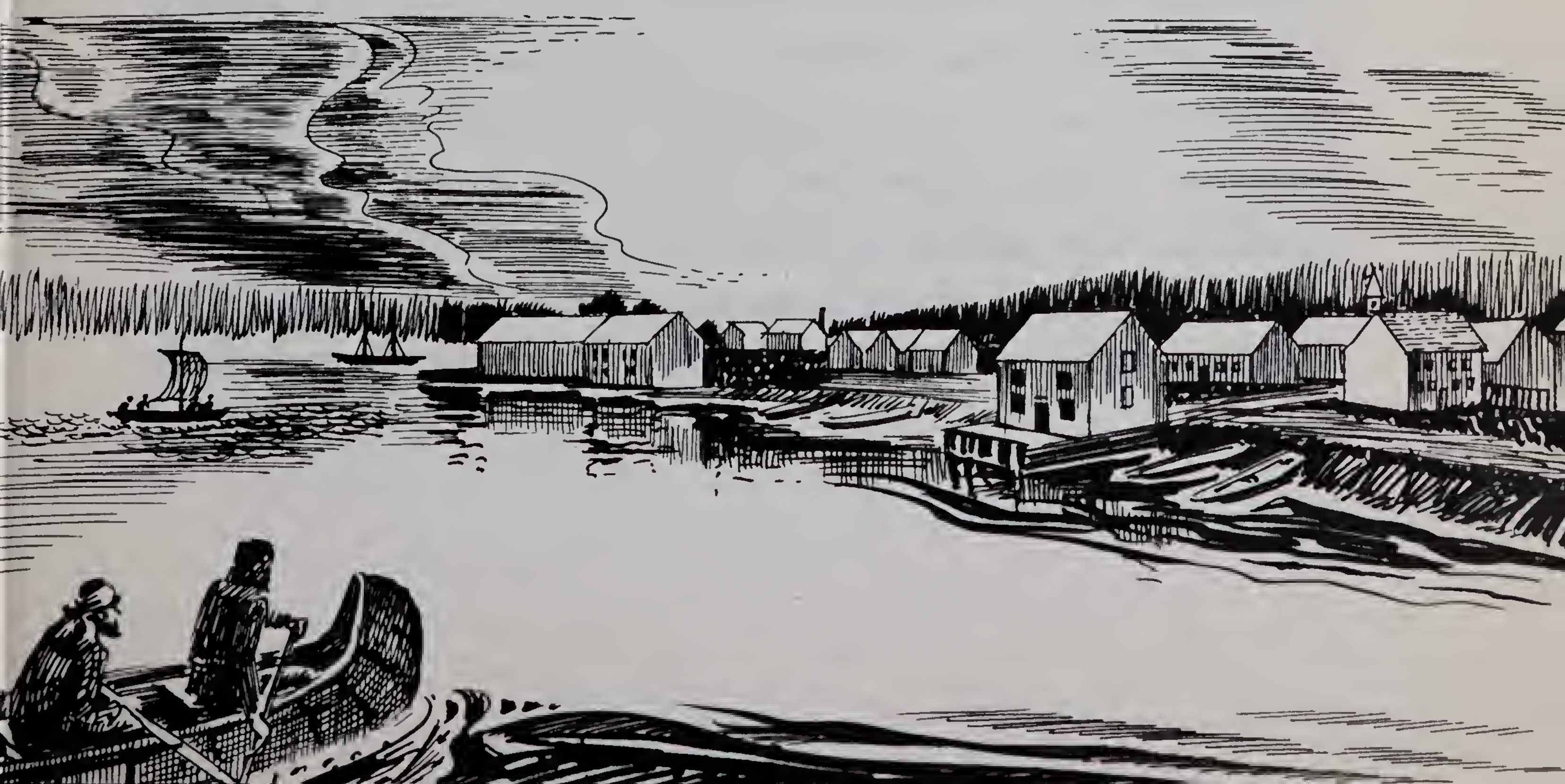
By 1800 the first settlers of Glengarry and Stormont had cleared part of their grants, and were building homes more comfortable than the crude log cabins which sheltered them during their first difficult days in the new land.

If you live in Kingston, you live in the place which had the largest population of any settlement in Upper Canada in 1800. As early as 1794 Kingston had 345 inhabitants, including, of course, the garrison stationed there. Cornwall, formerly called New Johnstown, was the chief government depot for the Loyalists of Glengarry and Stormont, and Kingston was the government headquarters for the western area.

Grist-mills were built in both settlements and settlers brought their grain to be ground into flour, often carrying it on their shoulders for miles along rough trails. It was to Kingston and Cornwall that the settlers went for the tools, the farm implements, the seed grain, and the rations of pork and flour the government provided during their first three years.

By 1800 the Loyalists had been in the Kingston and Cornwall areas for seventeen years. Their clearings were growing, and some of them were building comfortable homes to replace their first rough log cabins. As early as 1785 a visitor wrote, "Kingston increases fast: there are already about fifty houses in it, some of them very elegant."

This view of Kingston in 1794 is from a sketch by Mrs. Simcoe. In addition to these valuable drawings Mrs. Simcoe has left in her diary a lively account of her life in Upper Canada. The diary remains one of our best sources of information about early Canadian life.



Kingston became the chief British naval base on Lake Ontario. It was there in 1792 that Colonel Simcoe met his first Executive Council. The people of Kingston were bitterly disappointed that Colonel Simcoe did not select their community as the capital of Upper Canada. Simcoe, however, was first of all a soldier, and he thought Kingston was too open to attack by the Americans in case of war. After Upper and Lower Canada were united by the Act of Union, Kingston did become, from 1841 to 1844, the capital of the United Provinces.

PORT HOPE

Do you live in Port Hope? Did you know that there was once an Indian village there named Ganaraski? And that Port Hope was once called Smith's Creek because Peter Smith had a flourishing trading-post there as early as 1778? When the first settler, Myndert Harris, a Loyalist, established himself there, it was called Toronto. Later it was named Port Hope after Colonel Henry Hope who was lieutenant-governor of Quebec from 1785 to 1789.

ON THE GRAND RIVER

Did you know that if you are living in Fergus, Elora, Waterloo, Kitchener, Hespeler, Preston, Galt, Paris, Brantford, Caledonia, Dunnville, or Port Maitland that you are living on the tract granted to Joseph Brant and his Iroquois tribesmen? After the American War of Independence Brant, the great chief of the Mohawks, and the Loyalist Indians who had fought under him, came to Canada. The government gave them six miles on each side of the Grand River from its mouth to its source. When the area was explored it was found that the Grand River was longer than either Brant or the British Government thought, so a northern limit was set a little beyond Fergus. Even so, Brant and his tribesmen owned 1,200 square miles of good land. It was more than they needed, and Brant gave land to other Indians who asked for it and to white men. When the news spread that Brant was giving away land, men who wanted farms or who wanted to speculate in land urged him to give or sell land to them. Before the government knew what he was doing he had sold six large blocks to investors. This included the land from just south of where Paris stands to-day to Fergus. Governor Simcoe was not pleased when he learned what Brant had done because it had been intended that this land should be for the use of the Indians. He decided, however, that it was all right for Brant to sell the land if all the Indians agreed. By 1798 Brant had sold almost half the grant, and settlers from the United States and from Britain were establishing homes on it.

HAMILTON

Where the busy city of Hamilton now stands, there was a small settlement in 1800. The first settlers, Richard Land and Richard Beasley, took up land there in 1778. Richard Beasley was a Loyalist who had come to Niagara when he was only sixteen years old. During the American Revolution he showed such leadership that he became a colonel. He rescued a Loyalist girl from the Indians who were holding her captive and later married her. His name is also connected with Waterloo County, for he was one of the partners who bought Block Two from Joseph Brant and later sold it to the Mennonites who settled Waterloo County.

One day two young Mennonites from Pennsylvania, Samuel Betzner and Joseph Scherk, came to Beasley in Hamilton and asked if he would sell them part of the land he and his partners had bought from Brant. The young men had seen the land and decided that it would be a good place for a group of Mennonites to settle. In fact, their friends, with their household goods packed in sturdy Conestoga wagons, were already in Jordan, waiting for word from Betzner and Scherk. The Mennonites had cash in hand to pay for the land. Since Beasley's debts were worrying him, he was eager to sell, and a deal was made.

The Mennonites made their way through the difficult Beverley Swamp west of Hamilton into Block Two, and there they settled near the sites of the present cities of Waterloo and Kitchener. They were hard at work clearing the land and building their homes when they heard that Beasley had had no right to sell them the land. If this was true, their title deeds were worthless.

Samuel Betzner at once went to Beasley who had to admit that the report was true. He had not meant to cheat them but he was too deep in debt to be able to clear off the mortgage. He now offered them the whole tract of 60,000 acres for $20,000. This would enable him to pay off the mortgage, satisfy his partners, and clear some of his debts.

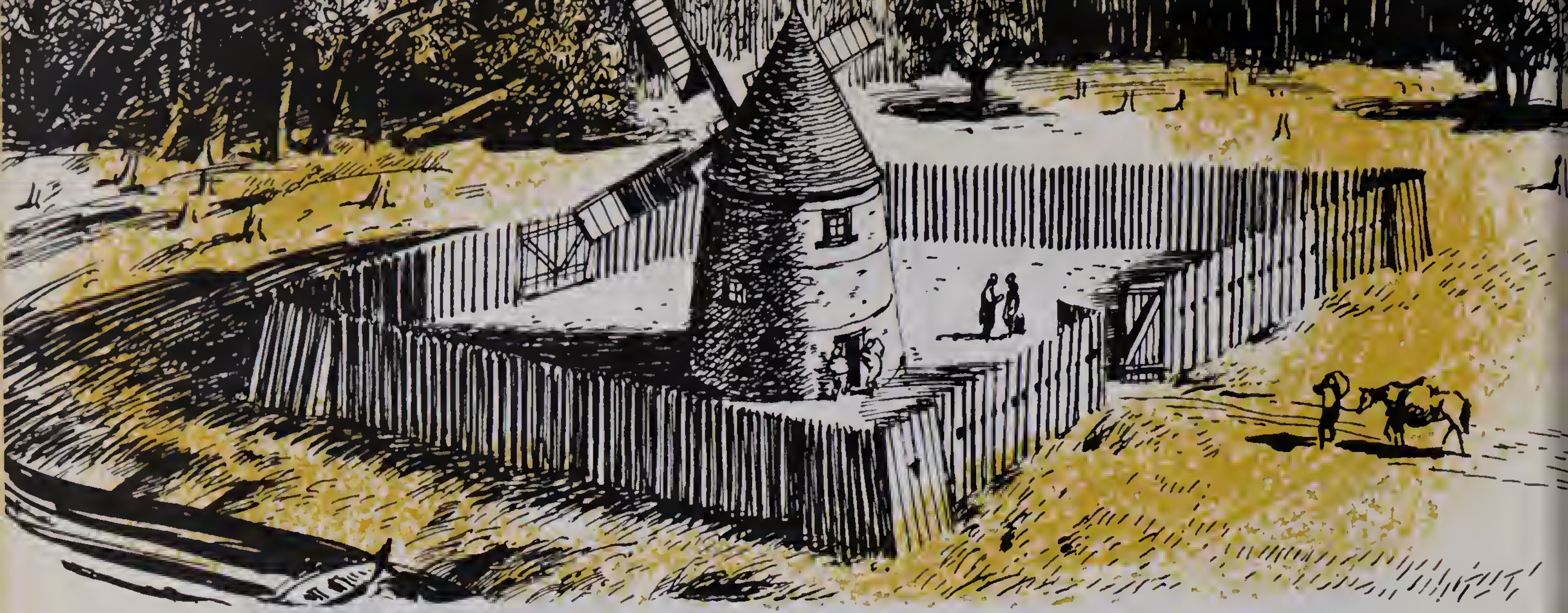
Betzner went back to the settlement and discussed this offer with his friends. They knew that the land was rich, and that it would be a good investment, but they did not have $20,000. Their relatives and friends in Pennsylvania had money, though; perhaps they would help them. Betzner and Scherk went back to their old homes and told their story. Though it took time to persuade the careful Mennonites to risk their money in a new land, finally twenty-five men formed a company and put up the required sum.

The women made two hundred canvas bags, and the money, in gold and silver, was tied into them. In the spring the young men started back to Canada with the $20,000 loaded in their Conestoga wagon. They were fortunate; they met no robbers, they forded the streams without mishap, and they arrived safely in Hamilton with their precious cargo. This time they engaged a lawyer to see that there would be no doubt about their title to their farms. Then they hired a surveyor to divide the 60,000 acres into farms. The Mennonites were good farmers, hard-working and thrifty. Before long other Mennonites from Pennsylvania joined them, and they soon paid off their debt to their old friends.

Among those who joined them were two brothers, Abraham and Joseph Erb. Abraham built a mill where Waterloo now stands and Joseph settled on the present site of Preston. In 1807 Joseph Schneider settled on the site now known as Kitchener. This settlement has had a succession of names. First it was known as Sand Hills, then as Ebytown, named in honour of a Mennonite bishop. In 1824 a number of settlers came from Germany and the town was named Berlin. During the First World War Canadians were so hostile to Germany that they would not tolerate the name Berlin for a Canadian city, so the name was changed to Kitchener, in honour of a famous general of the British army.

WINDSOR, SANDWICH, AND AMHERSTBURG

Do you live near the Detroit River? French seigniories were established in that area as early as 1734. Here, just as in Quebec, the seignior granted land to his tenants in



The windmill forts served the double purpose of grinding the grain and providing a refuge when Indians were on the war-path. With a good wind a mill could grind a hundred bushels of wheat in a day.

long narrow strips stretching back from the river. He was required to build a grist-mill which could be used as a fort in case of attack. These combined windmill-forts appear in most of the old pictures of the landscape along the Detroit River. The last fort in that area was torn down in 1875. Isn't it unfortunate that some historical society did not take steps to see that it was left as a museum to show how the pioneers lived?

Detroit was a French fur-trading post and at the end of the Seven Years War there were 300 houses there and about 2,000 inhabitants. When Canada became British, the settlements on both sides of the river were prospering. Some of the habitants had fine orchards in which they grew apples, cherries, and peaches. Most of the French Canadians remained on their farms, little disturbed by the change of government.

After the American War of Independence a few Loyalists crossed into Canada at Detroit and some of Butler's Rangers took up land along the river. Although according to the treaty Detroit was a part of the United States, it remained in British hands until 1796. When the time came to transfer it to the United States, most of the settlers on the American side moved across to Canada, some settling near Lake St. Clair, or along the Thames River, some near Fort Malden, situated where Amherstburg is now. Most of them, however, moved just across the river to Sandwich where town lots were given free to those who would build houses on them. The first brick house in the western part of Upper Canada had been built in Sandwich in 1790 by Colonel James Bâby, and this house, still standing at the corner of Russell and Mill streets, is one of the most noted historical landmarks in Upper Canada.

As late as 1812, the site of Windsor was still a meadow, part of Colonel Francis Bâby's farm. Later a stage-coach village grew up there, called La Traverse or The Ferry, where travellers were ferried across to Detroit in a log canoe at twenty-five cents for the return trip. By 1827 a small steamer, the *Argo,* replaced the log canoe.

In 1833 a visitor reported that there were fifteen or twenty houses in the settlement built of wood, and that some brick ones were being built. He predicted correctly that the village would "soon eclipse Sandwich and may rival Chatham". The name was changed to Richmond, and later to Windsor, after Windsor, England.

A traveller who visited the settlement in the eighteen-forties wrote, "The village of Windsor is a new place, formed in consequence of the American tariff, to enable the inhabitants to smuggle goods across the river. A man coming from Detroit buys cloth for a suit of clothes, gets them made, and then marches back to Detroit with the new clothes on his back, under the very nose of the Collector of Customs."

THE NIAGARA DISTRICT

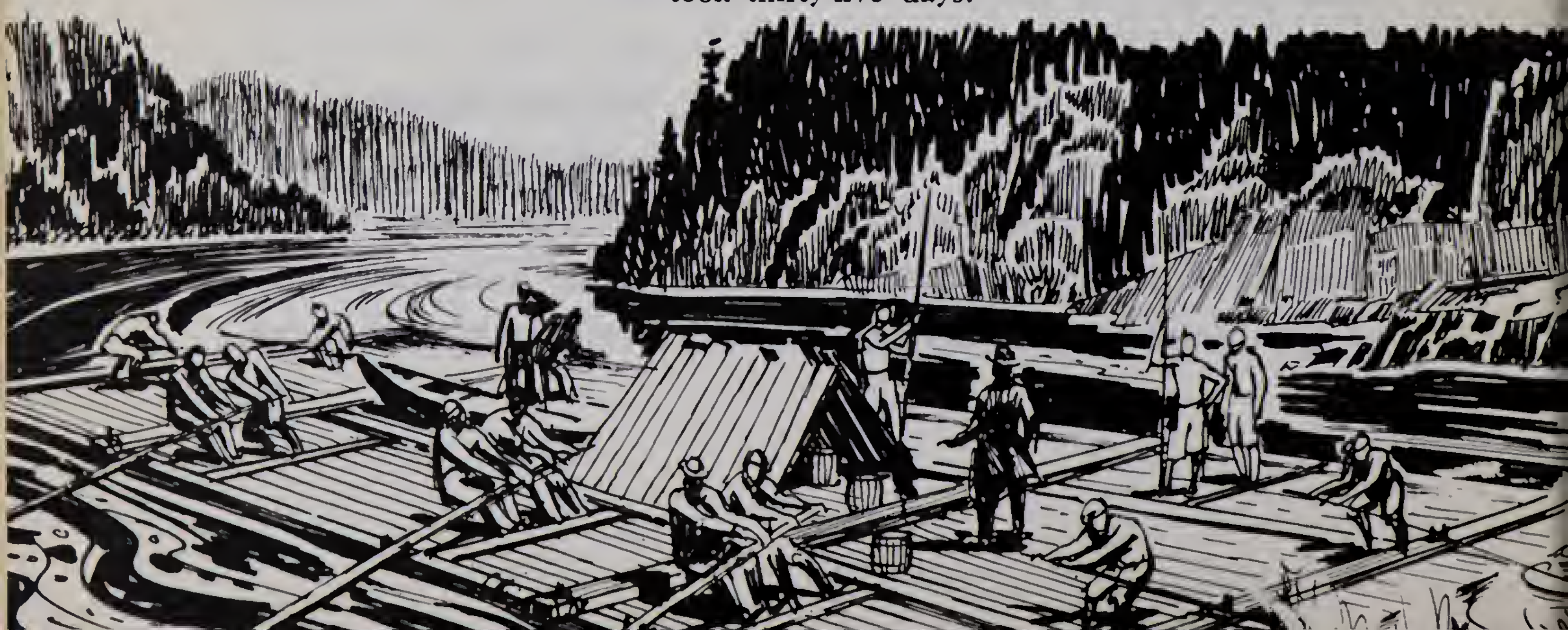
If you live in Niagara-on-the-Lake, you are living in the first capital of Upper Canada. It was there that Colonel Simcoe met the first Parliament in Upper Canada in 1792. Colonel Simcoe preferred English names. You remember he changed the name of Toronto to York. He also changed the name of Niagara to Newark. Many of the people of Niagara did not approve of this change, and they were even less happy when he moved the capital to York because he thought Niagara was too close to the American border and too open to attack in case of war.

Loyalists from Pennsylvania and the frontier came early to this area. In 1776 a group of five women and thirty-six children, weak from hunger and exhausted by the difficult journey, arrived at Fort George. Families of members of Loyalist regiments stationed at Fort George or at Fort Niagara fled from the persecution of their neighbours to seek the protection of the soldiers and found shelter near the forts. When Butler's Rangers were disbanded at the end of the war, some of the officers and men took up land in the Niagara district. It is on record that in May, 1784, there were at Niagara forty-six families, with forty-four houses and twenty barns.

OTTAWA AND HULL

The present site of Ottawa, the capital of our country, was in 1800 a cedar swamp, but in that year Philemon Wright from Massachusetts took his first party of settlers up the

Philemon Wright took his first raft of squared timber down the Ottawa River to Montreal in 1806. In the winter the shantymen cut and squared the trees and in the spring they made them into small rafts, called cribs, which could be floated down the river. In quiet water these cribs were joined together in one large raft and propelled forward by means of long oars. When the raft neared rapids it was broken up again into the smaller cribs. The trip by raft from the mouth of the Gatineau River to Quebec took thirty-five days.



Ottawa River to make their homes where the city of Hull now stands. Wright built a grist-mill, a saw-mill, a hemp-mill, and a tannery, and for some time the settlement was known as Wright's Mills. In 1807 he took his first raft of squared timber down the Ottawa and the St. Lawrence to Quebec, thus opening up the lumber industry which later brought settlers and wealth to the Ottawa Valley.

WHAT ABOUT YOUR OWN COMMUNITY?

It is not possible in this book to discuss the early history of all the towns and villages of Ontario. Every one has its own story. There were settlers in Brockville, Prescott, Gananoque, and Ancaster in 1800, but Ottawa, London, Galt, Guelph, Perth, Peterborough and many other places which have become thriving communities were then swamp or uncleared forest waiting for settlers.

3. Lower Canada

> "Here Bretons uprooted the wigwam,
> planted the manor and cabin."
>
> EARLE BIRNEY: *Montreal*

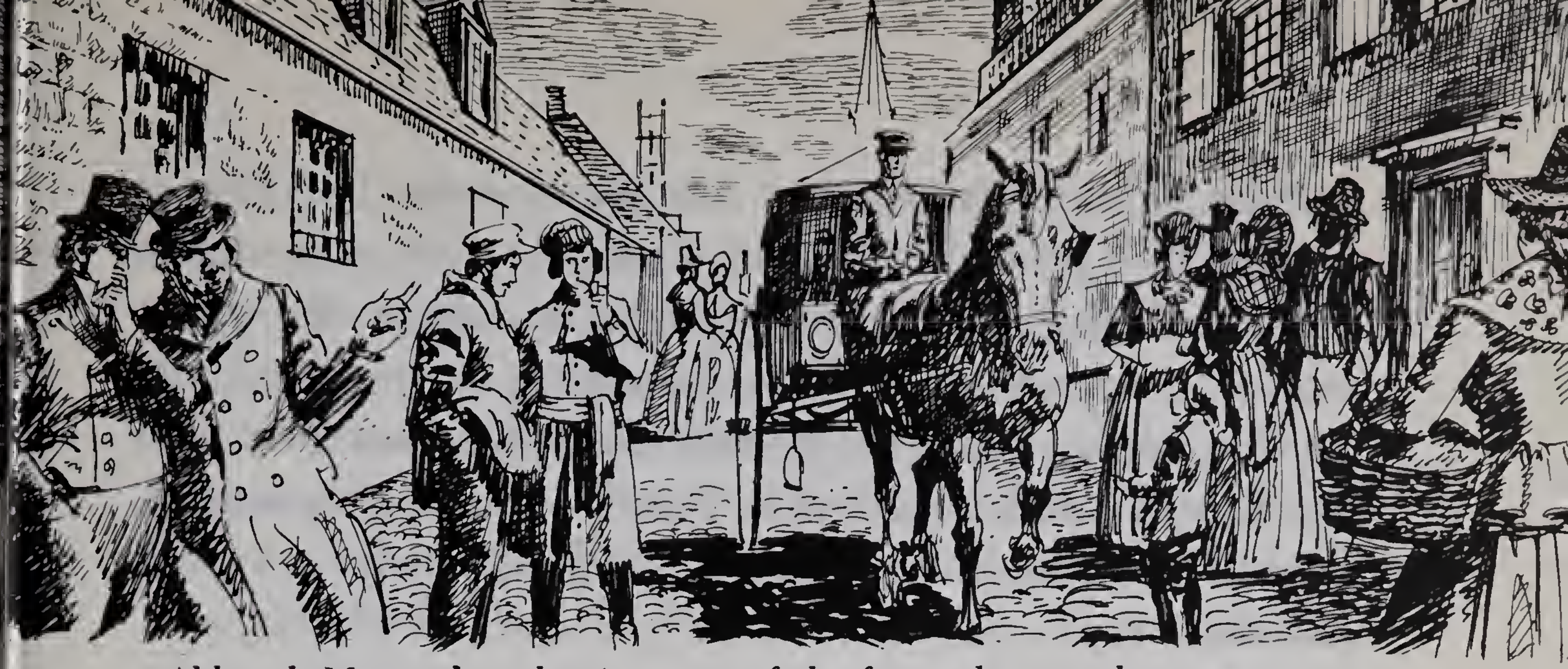
In 1800 Lower Canada had a larger population than any of the other provinces of British North America. Most of the people were French Canadians, for the majority of the French settlers had remained in Canada when the French surrendered to the British. They hoped that France would some day regain her colony. They were not happy about being under British rule but they remained here and accepted it. In the country districts the habitants lived quietly on their farms or in their little villages, speaking their own language, worshipping in their parish churches, obeying the curé, and paying rent to the seigniors.

Only about three thousand Loyalists settled in Lower Canada. Some went to Gaspé where they became fishermen; some settled at Sorel where the government had bought a seigniory to be portioned out to settlers. A few became tenants on seigniories owned by French seigniors but the government discouraged this by refusing supplies to any who did not settle on "the King's land".

Later, after 1791, when the land in the Eastern Townships was opened for settlers, Americans flocked in from south of the border and took up land. Loyalists had not been allowed to settle there because the government considered it was so close to the boundary that trouble might arise between the Loyalists and their Vermont neighbours.

In the rural areas the people found life little different from what it had been under French rule, but in the cities the coming of the British brought about great changes and caused resentment. The French-speaking Canadians had little say in the government. The Governor came from Britain and the men he chose as his advisers in the Executive and Legislative Councils were almost all English-speaking business men whose interests were often quite different from those of the French-speaking group. Most, though not all, of big business was in the hands of the English-speaking newcomers. In Quebec, for example, British business men were establishing a thriving shipbuilding industry, and developing a lively trade in Canadian lumber with other countries. The shipbuilders employed many French-speaking workmen, but the best jobs were usually held by the British.

Montreal remained the centre of the fur trade. In the days of the French regime the trade was controlled by the government. After the arrival of the British merchants anyone who could afford to outfit a brigade could seek his fortune in the fur trade. Every spring rival traders sent



Although Montreal, as headquarters of the fur trade, was the most prosperous settlement in British North America in 1800, it was still a small city with a population of only 9,000. By 1830 the population had grown to 40,000.

out their brigades of canoes loaded with goods to offer the western Indians in return for their furs. Every fall the canoes returned bringing to the Montreal warehouses the furs from the west. Competition was keen and ruthless. It was every man for himself out in the Churchill and Athabaska regions. Before long some of the wiser men realized that this cutthroat competition might ruin them all. Several companies united to form the powerful North West Company which rapidly extended a chain of posts across the west. A large number of French traders and voyageurs were employed in the fur trade, but the management and the profits were in the hands of the British. The "Fur Lords of the Great West" became very wealthy and built magnificent homes in Montreal.

The two groups, English-speaking and French-speaking, made little effort to understand each other. The British group thought that, since Canada was now under British rule, they should dominate. The descendants of the French settlers were determined to remain French, trusting the British to adhere to the provisions of the Quebec Act which had promised that they would be governed under their own laws and would be allowed to worship in their own churches.

When the Constitutional Act was passed in 1791, it created two provinces: Upper Canada, which was almost entirely British, and Lower Canada, where the great majority were French. The statesmen who passed the Act hoped that when the French Canadians saw how well the British system worked in Upper Canada they would, of their own free will, adopt British ideas. It did not work out that way.

4. The Atlantic Provinces

> "Still do these waves when the gale snaps them
> fracture white as the narwhal's tusk."
> EARLE BIRNEY: *The Atlantic Door*

NEWFOUNDLAND

Britain considered Newfoundland a valuable colony, because the fisheries provided employment for many British seamen and wealth for the fish merchants of the West Country of England. The fishing fleets, moreover, were excellent schools for the training of sailors who would in time of war be needed in His Majesty's navy. Though the fish merchants had done everything they could to discourage settlement, even persuading the government to pass laws forbidding the settlers to build homes or clear land within six miles of the coast, the population grew. Men stayed behind when the fishing fleets returned home and built rough cabins in hidden coves where they hoped they would not be noticed. During the wars with France following the French Revolution, many fishermen wanted to make their homes on the island and avoid the risk of capture by an enemy ship. Even the fish merchants began to see that it would be cheaper to employ some men who lived in Newfoundland and save the cost of sending them out every year.

By 1804 there were 20,000 people living in Newfoundland. The governors, realizing that it was no longer reasonable to try to prohibit settlement, began to grant pasture lands and to allow settlers to clear the land and raise crops. They saw that unless the islanders could produce some of their own food, there might be times when there would be serious shortages. Since the islanders were not wealthy enough to afford the type of ship needed for deep-sea fishing on the Grand Banks, they fished close to shore in small boats they could build for themselves. Thus were developed the inshore fisheries. By 1815 the population had increased to 35,000.

It was not until 1817 that the governor stayed in Newfoundland all year round. Until that time he came over with the fishing fleet in the spring and returned to England in the autumn. Except for the few people sent out to administer the government, almost all of the people of Newfoundland depended on fishing for their living. No matter how good the catch, however, Newfoundland was not a prosperous colony. Most of the money went to the English merchants who provided the ships and equipment.

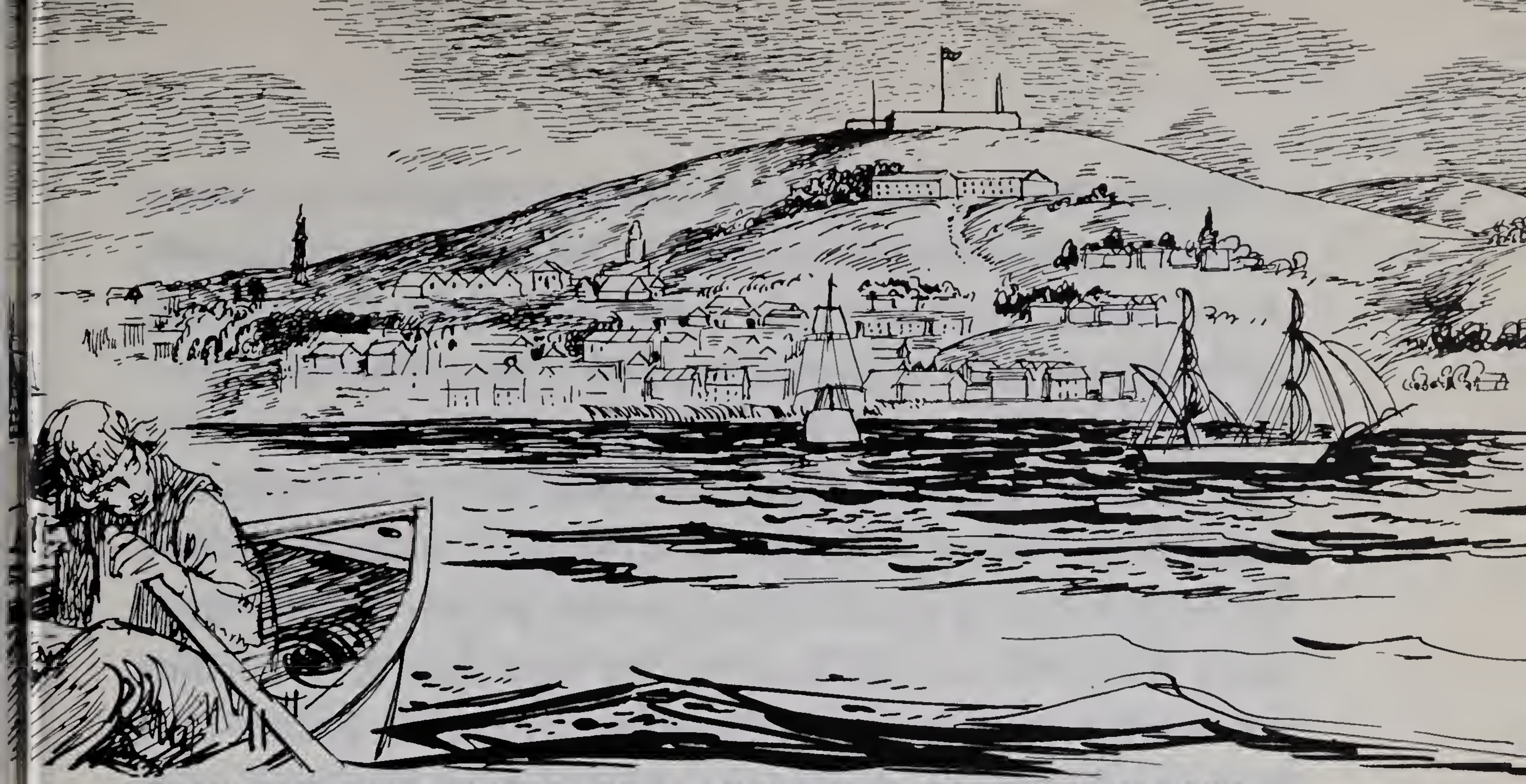
NOVA SCOTIA

There was a mixed population in Nova Scotia: English, German, New Englanders, Scottish, and Loyalists. Halifax, the capital, had been established on its magnificent harbour in 1749 when Lord Cornwallis brought out a group of settlers from England. Since it was headquarters for the government and for the navy and also a garrison town, many of the people were there for only a few years. Many noblemen spent some time there as officers of the navy or the army, including two of the King's sons, Prince William, who later became William IV, and Prince Edward, the father of Queen Victoria. It was like an English town transplanted to America.

After the Acadians were exiled, Governor Lawrence wanted to make sure that the colony would remain British, so he advertised in the Boston newspapers inviting settlers to come to Nova Scotia. For the first ten years the lands were to be rent-free; after that the settlers would pay a shilling a year for every fifty acres. Many New Englanders came, and, after the Seven Years War was over, when they learned from their friends what good farms they could get along the Basin of Minas and in the Annapolis Valley, more followed.

Once France had surrendered Canada to Britain, there was no longer any reason for the British to fear the Acadians. When some of the exiled Acadians came back hoping to settle in their old homes, the British did not object. As early as 1766, a number of Acadians who had been exiled to Massachusetts gathered in Boston, and nine hundred of them made their way on foot from Boston to Chignecto. The journey took them four months and many of them died of exhaustion before they reached their destination. When they found strangers in possession of their old homes, they pressed on into Digby and Yarmouth counties where to-day many of their descendants are still to be found.

Since Nova Scotia was a well-established colony and known to them, it was natural that many of the Loyalists chose to go there when they had to leave the United States. It already had an elected Assembly, many churches, three newspapers, several schools, and thriving shipbuilding, lumbering, and fishing industries. Some of the Loyalists had friends among the New Englanders who were already settled there.



Halifax in 1800. Halifax has been called "The Warden of the North" because it was for many years the North American headquarters for the British forces. It is still eastern Canada's chief winter port.

So many Loyalists came that it was very difficult to look after them all. Halifax suddenly grew to four times its former size. People found shelter in tents, in churches, in ships' cabins taken from the ships in the harbour and lined up in the streets. Some of the Loyalists who had had no experience in farming or fishing found life too difficult in Nova Scotia and went elsewhere, to England, to the West Indies, to Upper Canada, or even back to the United States. Most of them, however, remained and after many hardships established new homes.

NEW BRUNSWICK

When the Loyalists went to New Brunswick they entered new and unsettled territory, but by 1800 they had made a brave beginning. It was a long slow job to clear the land and some of them looked for other ways to make a living. Quite a number had been shipbuilders before they came and in New Brunswick they found tall straight trees which made excellent masts for sailing vessels. They built strong swift ships and before long were shipping lumber to Britain for the shipbuilders there.

Though Britain had hoped that the Maritime Provinces would produce food for export to Newfoundland and the West Indies, none of them grew more than they needed for their own use. Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island had more land under cultivation than New Brunswick but they had no grain to export. Therefore New Brunswick found it necessary to import a large part of its food from the neighbouring states. Because the people of the Maritimes had little to sell but lumber and fish they became carriers for goods produced in other countries. Before long their sturdy little ships, like the ships of New England, were sailing the Seven Seas carrying goods from one part of the world to another.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND

Until 1799 Prince Edward Island was called Ile St. Jean by the French and the Island of St. John by the British. When Prince Edward, one of George III's many sons, was in command of the army in Halifax, he visited Charlottetown and expressed some interest in the fortifications there. The people were so pleased by this visit from the King's son that they changed the name of the island to honour him. Charlottetown, known as Port la Joie when the French lived there, had already been named Charlottetown after his mother, the Queen.

Ile St. Jean was, we believe, first visited by Jacques Cartier in 1534, but it was a long time before any settlers came. After Acadia was surrendered to Britain by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713, some of the Acadians moved over to Ile St. Jean, and seven years later a bold adventurer named St. Pierre, who had been given a grant of land by the French government, brought some three hundred settlers out. When St. Pierre and his people came to the excellent harbour on which Charlottetown now stands they were so happy that they named it Port la Joie, and there they built their settlement.

By 1758 when the island was taken by the British, there were about four thousand French, who made a living by farming, fishing, and hunting, gathered around settlements at Port la Joie, Port Prince, St. Peter, and Malpeque. Since Britain and France were still at war, the generals were not willing to leave these people where they could help the French. The unhappy settlers were crowded into nine transport ships bound for France, two of which were lost at sea. Years later, some of the Acadians returned to their old homes.

When the war ended in 1763, both Ile St. Jean and Cape Breton were ceded to Britain and both were made part of Nova Scotia and governed from Halifax.

A few years after the treaty, most of Prince Edward Island was granted to sixty-seven men in England and Scotland to whom the government wanted to give favours. These men were called proprietors and they hoped that they and their descendants would become rich because they owned this land. It is not surprising that they thought so, because they knew very little about conditions in America. If they had owned that much land in Britain, they could have rented it to tenants who would till the land and pay rents. The proprietors agreed to pay a small rent for their grants and to bring out settlers. Few of them, however, paid their rent or sent out settlers or even visited their new property. They were waiting for other people to do the hard work of pioneering. As late as 1797, twenty-three of the sixty-seven grants still had no settlers.

By 1769 there were only about two hundred and fifty settlers in the colony. Since Halifax was far away, they wanted to be a separate colony with their own lieutenant-governor and council. The British Government granted this, and later, in 1773, though the population was still very small, the colonists were allowed to elect representatives to an assembly which would help to make the laws.

After the American War of Independence, the proprietors offered land to the Loyalists and about six hundred came. When they had cleared the land and built homes, the Loyalists found out that the proprietors had no intention of letting them own their land but expected them to become tenants and pay rent. The proprietor might raise the rent after the tenants had improved the property or he might even sell the land. Loyalists in other colonies had been given free lands and the Loyalists in Prince Edward Island had expected to own their lands. The proprietors still hoped that they could make money in America without working for it, and even the governor was on their side. They did not understand that in a pioneer country settlers could not make enough to build homes, support themselves, and pay rents, too. And they did not realize that these Loyalists were independent men who were determined to own their own land.

When the settlers threatened to send delegates to England to state their case, some of the proprietors gave them deeds to their farms, but a number of the disputes about titles to the land were not settled until 1860.

THE FIRST SMALL WAVE OF SETTLERS FROM SCOTLAND

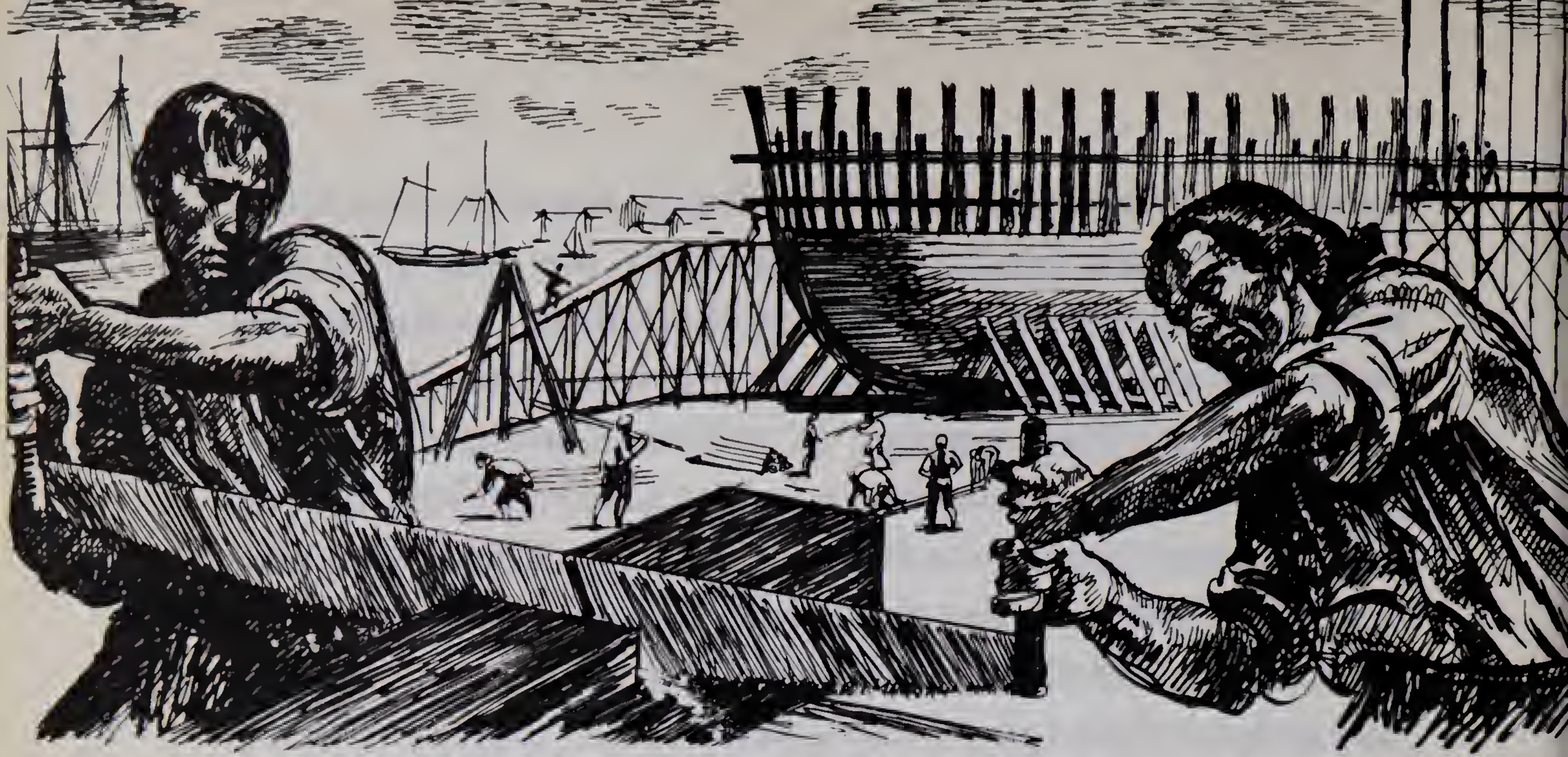
Before 1800 some settlers had been coming from Old Scotland to "New Scotland" (Nova Scotia is Latin for New Scotland) and the other British provinces. In the old land the Industrial Revolution had created a demand for wool to keep the new factories busy. There was such a good market for British woollen goods that the landowners found it more profitable to use their land for sheep raising than to rent it to tenants. Landlords began to force the people off their land. If the tenants were slow to go, the landlords sometimes burned their little homes before their eyes and drove them away. A few of the landlords offered to pay for a passage to America for their unhappy tenants. Some came to Nova Scotia, some to Cape Breton Island, some to Prince Edward Island. They were the first small wave of the Scots who came in such numbers after the turn of the century, "the first long wash of waves where soon shall roll a human sea".

5. The United States in 1800

> "Here the free spirit of mankind at length
> Throws its last fetters off; and who shall place
> A limit to the giant's unchallenged strength,
> Or curb his swiftness in the forward race?"
>
> William Cullen Bryant: *The Ages*

In 1800 the United States was only seventeen years old. There were now sixteen stars in its flag. The North-west Ordinance in 1787 had provided that, when any territory north of the Ohio had 60,000 free inhabitants, it could apply to enter the Union on an equal footing with the original states, and in 1791 Vermont had thus become a state. In 1792 Kentucky was admitted, and in 1796 Tennessee became the sixteenth state.

In 1800 the population of the United States was estimated to be 5,308,483. New York had succeeded in getting rid of most of the pirates who had formerly made that magnificent harbour unpopular with merchants and ship captains, and had grown to be a city of nearly 80,000. Philadelphia, no longer the largest city, boasted a population of over 41,000. Boston, Charleston, and Baltimore were smaller but were growing steadily.



In the days of the wooden sailing vessel, the swift Clipper ships that set forth from the harbours of New England were world-famous. They sailed all over the world, trading and carrying cargoes from one country to another.

There were wealthy planters in the southern states, and prosperous shipbuilders and shipowners in New England. Merchants in the cities were building up small fortunes. Factories had been built and some iron and steel works established. These plants, though small compared to our modern giants, were producing goods "Made in America". Thus the Americans were becoming less and less dependent on other countries for manufactured goods.

Most of the people, however, still lived on the land, thousands of them in rough log cabins in small clearings on the western frontier. Roads were poor and the nearest neighbour was often a long distance away.

THE GOVERNMENT HAS ITS TROUBLES

The Americans were still struggling to make their system of government work. This was a very difficult task. The people were divided almost equally between the Federalist and the anti-Federalist parties. The first two presidents, George Washington and John Adams, were Federalists, but John Adams in 1796 won his election by a very close vote, 71 to 68, a fact which encouraged his opponents to taunt him with being "president by three votes". The Federalists were determined to establish a strong central government, and they included in their ranks most of the well-to-do business men. The anti-Federalists (at that time called the Republicans), led by Thomas Jefferson, were afraid that the wealthy business men might control the government and establish a tyranny the people would hate even more than they had hated government by Great Britain.

Two rebellions protested against the taxes the government imposed. Since the Americans had fought the War of Independence largely because they objected to taxes paid to Britain, many of them continued to resent taxes. They had not yet learned that it costs money to run a country. There was such bitter criticism of the government that in 1798 Congress passed the Alien and Sedition Acts which gave it far more power than Thomas Jefferson and the Republicans thought it should have. These acts gave the government power to deny freedom of speech and freedom of the press. It could stop the citizens from holding meetings to protest their grievances or to draw up petitions to ask for changes. Under the Sedition Act the authorities jailed and fined about twenty-five men, most of them editors of Republican newspapers in which the government had been criticized.

Thomas Jefferson and the other Republican leaders thought that free men who owned and worked the land were the best people to determine how the country should be governed. The planters of the south, the small farmers of the north and west, and many of the working people in the towns and cities supported them because they knew that the Republicans were against allowing the rich merchants, factory owners, and bankers to become too powerful. Jefferson's party later became the present Democratic party.

In the election of 1800 Thomas Jefferson was chosen President. He had been responsible for drafting the Declaration of Independence and he believed every word of it. His philosophy of government was firmly based on the conviction which he expressed in the Declaration, "that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness".

Jefferson had read a great deal and he accepted many ideas about government from other people, many of whom were English writers. "I did not consider it any part of my charge," he said about his part in writing the Declaration of Independence, "to invent new ideas or to offer no sentiment which had ever been expressed before." Though his ideas were not all original, he spoke and wrote so eloquently to urge the reforms which have become a part of free government everywhere that he is revered wherever democratic government exists.

At a time when only a few men in Britain had votes and when even in the United States only men who owned property had the right to vote, Jefferson approved of political equality and a vote for every man. He was in favour of local self-government, freedom of thought and of speech, local circulating libraries, and education for everyone. If the people are to determine how the country is to be governed, he maintained, they must have the advantages of a good education. He opposed monopolies and special privileges for any group. Although he inherited slaves from his father, he hoped to see the day when the slaves would be free and some of them sent back home to Africa. One of his beliefs, however, Canadians could never accept. He believed it was the destiny of the United States to control the whole continent of America.

When Jefferson and Alexander Hamilton were both in George Washington's Cabinet they disagreed sharply. If Jefferson had had his way, the citizens would have had too much freedom and the central government would have been too weak. If Hamilton had had his way, the government would have been very strong, but not enough freedom would have been given to the individual citizen. As a result of the struggle between these two, a balance was established between respect for the rights of the individual and the establishment of a strong central government.

When Jefferson was elected President he was determined to allow the people freedom to discuss and criticize the government. He declared that "error of opinion may be tolerated where reason is left free to combat it". That is one of the basic principles of democratic government, permitting people whom you believe to be mistaken to express their views and trusting that the course of wisdom will prevail. Jefferson freed the people who had been sent to jail under the Sedition Act.

Jefferson was fortunate because when he took office the United States was becoming more prosperous. Because of the war in Europe, there was a good market for American products and generous profits for American ships which carried the goods to the war-torn countries. True, many of these ships and their cargoes were seized by French or by English ships, but, even so, the Americans were making money. When times are good, citizens do not object very much to paying taxes; when times are bad, they, rightly or wrongly, blame the government.

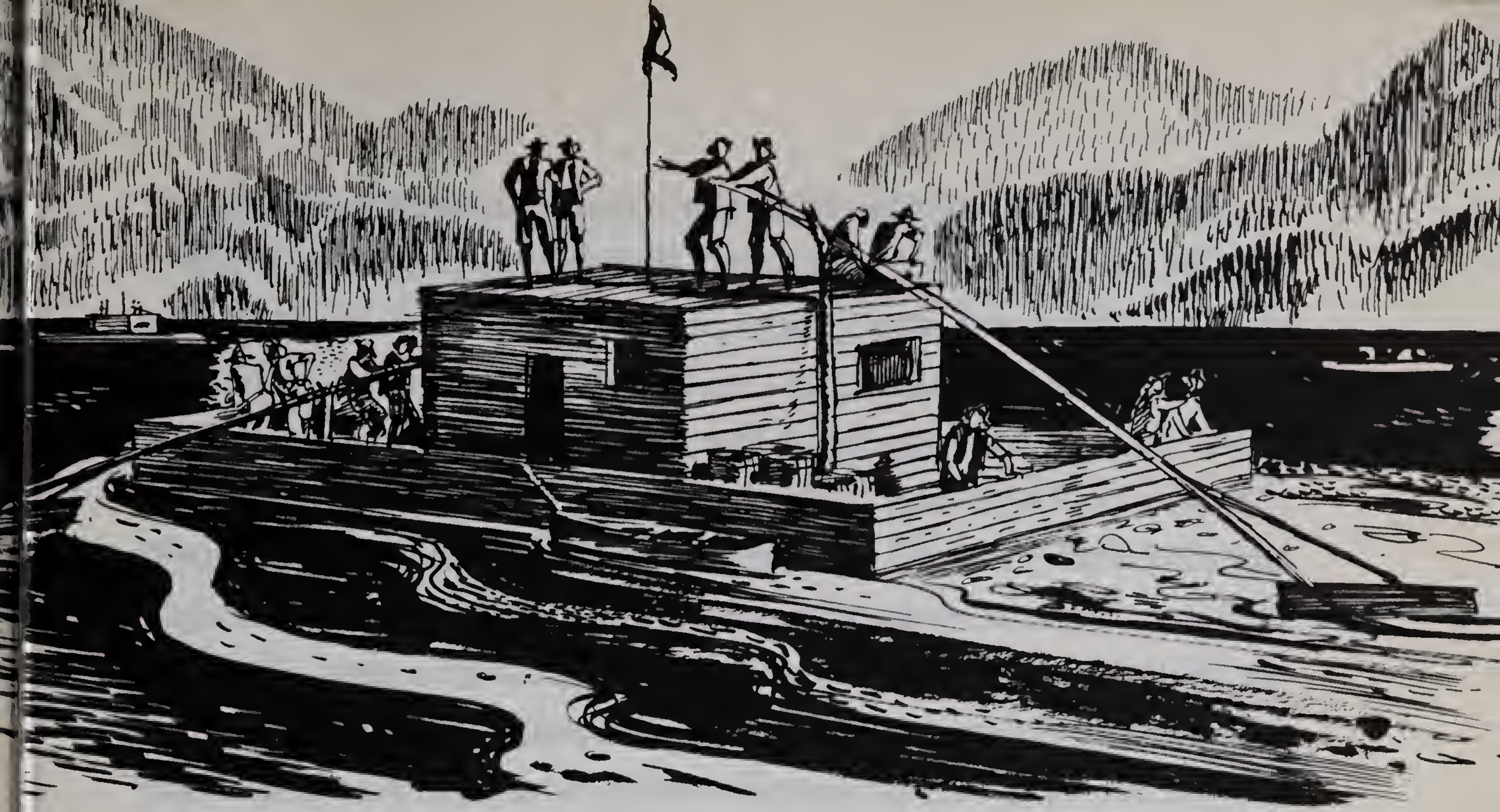
In 1800 Congress had passed a Land Act which permitted settlers to stake out a 320-acre homestead for an initial cash payment of $160. Four years later the settlers were allowed to take 160 acres for $80. So many settlers then moved into Ohio that it became a state in 1803.

Jefferson believed in the future of the new nation. "It is impossible," he wrote, "not to look forward to distant times, when our rapid multiplication will . . . cover the whole northern, if not the southern continent." He was over-optimistic. Even in North America the United States is still bounded on the north by Canada, which has remained steadfastly within the British Commonwealth, and on the south-west by Mexico. It was while he was president, however, that Lewis and Clark made their expedition across the continent and claimed Oregon for the United States. And it was in his term, too, that the United States bought Louisiana from France.

THE UNITED STATES BUYS LOUISIANA

The Louisiana Purchase is one of the great events of American history. It added a vast territory to the new nation. It also ensured for the settlers along the Ohio and the Mississippi and its tributaries a route to the markets of the Atlantic seaboard, and gave the United States control of the great Mississippi River, which for many years remained the chief artery for the trade of the interior.

As soon as the settlers along the Ohio and the Mississippi raised more produce than they needed for themselves, they faced the difficult problem of transporting their goods to markets. Cattle and pigs might be driven along the trails to the eastern states, but there would be no profit from heavy crops such as tobacco, cotton, wheat, or corn unless they could find a way of shipping them to market. They solved this problem by building rough flat-boats which they poled down the rivers to New Orleans. There, by agreement with the Spaniards, they stored their produce in warehouses until ships came to take it to the Atlantic seaboard. Since it was not possible to pole the flat-boats up-stream against the current, the owners broke them up



A flatboat on the Mississippi carrying produce down to New Orleans. When night came the boat was tied up to the shore. It was a long, slow trip but there was no other way of transporting heavy produce to market.

and sold the lumber for building materials or for firewood in New Orleans. Then they rode home on horseback over the old Indian trails which followed the river. Sometimes it took as long as six months to make the journey to New Orleans and back.

As long as Spain owned Louisiana, this way of taking their goods to market was satisfactory, but when France regained her former possessions there in 1800 the Americans became alarmed. Napoleon was becoming very powerful in Europe. He might conquer Europe and be strong enough to close the Mississippi to American trade. This would be fatal to the settlers who depended on shipping their goods through New Orleans.

Jefferson decided he must try to buy the harbour of New Orleans and the area around the mouth of the Mississippi from France. Accordingly he sent James Monroe (later the fifth President) to help Robert Livingston, the American Ambassador to France, persuade Napoleon to sell. At first Napoleon was not interested. The French people had been happy about regaining Louisiana and he knew that many would object to giving it up again. But Napoleon needed money to maintain his army. Moreover, he knew that he would be at war with Britain before long. Since the British navy was very powerful he would certainly have trouble maintaining communication with Louisiana. Even though he knew that the French people would resent the loss of their last large piece of territory in America, he decided to sell. Jefferson had hoped to buy New Orleans and the area around the mouth of the Mississippi for $10,000,000 but Napoleon would not agree to this. Louisiana without New Orleans would be of little value to France, and this proposal would have left him still with the responsibility of defending Louisiana if the British should try to take control of it. He might have to send soldiers there that he needed in Europe. He offered the American representatives all of Louisiana for $15,000,000 and said they must take all or nothing. Since there was not time to write to Jefferson for instructions, Livingston and Monroe accepted Napoleon's terms, and this huge area became part of the United States. "We may live long," Livingston said to Monroe, "but this is the noblest work of our lives. It will change vast solitudes into thriving districts." Thus, in 1803, just twenty years after it became independent, the new nation almost doubled in size.

Since Jefferson was so certain that it was the destiny of the United States to grow into a great nation and control the continent, he was delighted with the Louisiana Purchase. There were, however, people along the Atlantic seaboard, especially in the New England States, who thought this was a foolish buy. Their interest was in trade. They were not much concerned with opening new lands for settlement; and they did not realize how valuable this vast area would be to the United States. There were only two settlements of any size in Louisiana: New Orleans, a city of about 10,000, and St. Louis, a fur-trading post of about 160 log huts, situated on the west bank of the river about twenty miles below the mouth of the Missouri River.

More settlers poured into the west. By 1812, Louisiana and Indiana had grown large enough to become states.

WAR CLOUDS APPEAR

Thomas Jefferson had a noble dream for his country. He wanted the United States to be a land in which freedom would be secure, as it was not when he came into office. He hoped to live peacefully with other nations and he did not want to build an expensive navy to defend American shipping from attack by foreign foes. He was not as much concerned about the prosperity of the shipping industry and of the business men of the Atlantic cities as he was about protecting the freedom of the individual. He hoped that the separate states would forget their jealousies and become truly united. Instead of spending money on a navy he favoured building roads and canals and developing public education. But before he retired in 1809, it was becoming clear that trouble was brewing, and under his successor, James Madison, the United States found itself at war.

After serving two terms as President, Jefferson retired to Monticello, his home in Virginia, and there he entertained visitors from all over the world who came to consult with him about his philosophy of government. Sometimes his housekeeper had to provide beds for as many as fifty guests. As a matter of fact, he spent his fortune keeping up his beautiful home and entertaining his visitors. He died on July 4, 1826, just fifty years to the day after the proclamation of the Declaration of Independence. In accordance with his request, the inscription on his tomb reads: "Author of the Declaration of Independence; of the Statute for Religious Liberty in Virginia; and Founder of the University of Virginia."

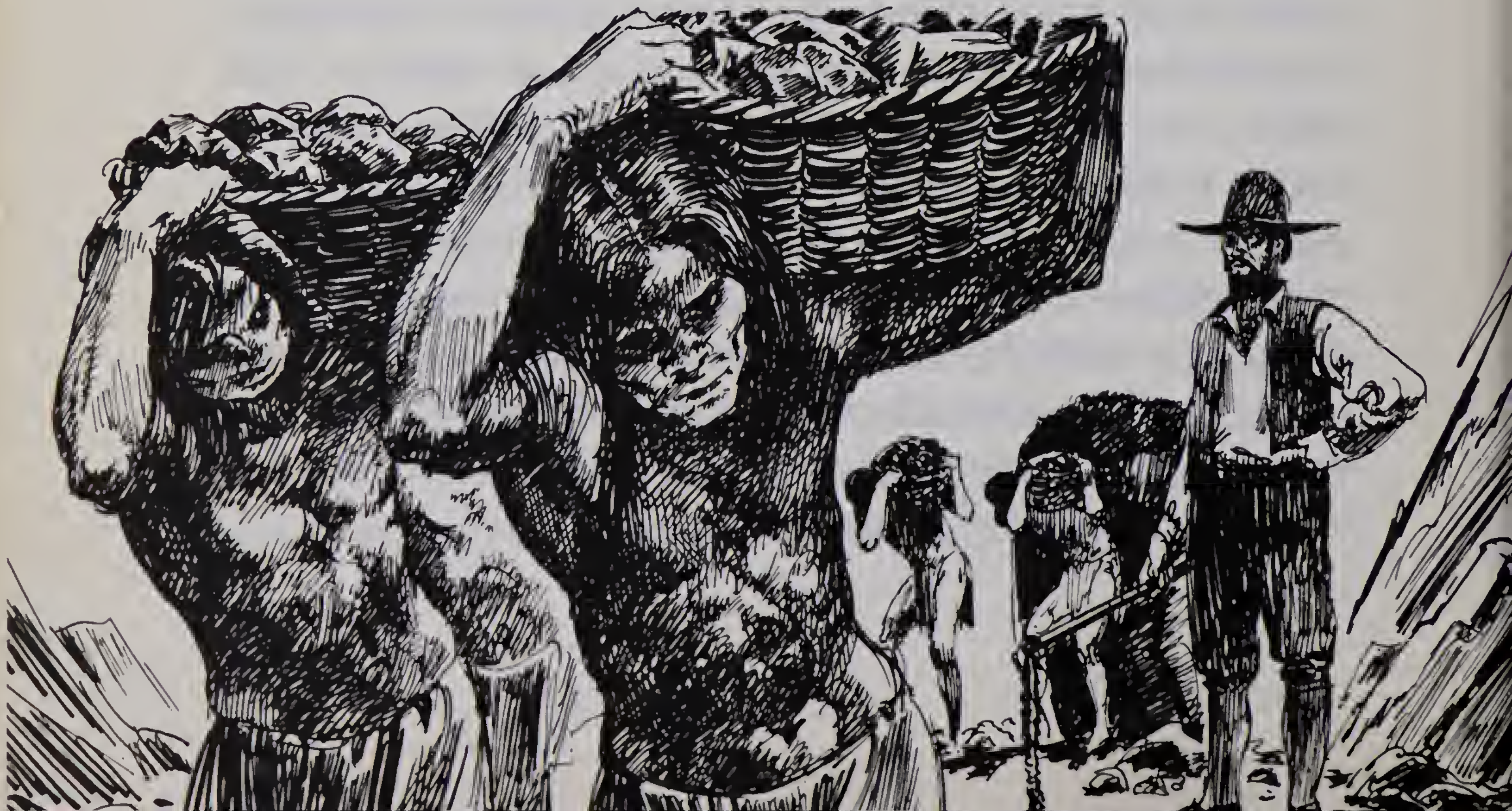
6. Spain Loses Her Colonies in America

"How are the mighty fallen in the midst of the battle!"
The Bible: 2 Samuel i. 19

In 1800 Spain still owned vast areas in America. Florida, California, and Mexico, which at that time included Texas, were all Spanish colonies. Spain was supreme in Central America and controlled the whole continent of South America, except Brazil which belonged to Portugal, and British, French, and Dutch Guiana.

There were four groups of people in the Spanish colonies: the Spanish governing class, the Creoles, the Mestizos, and the Indians. The officials who came out from Spain to govern the colony usually went back to Spain when their term was over. The Creoles, the descendants of Spaniards who had settled in the colonies, were often well educated and capable men but the Spaniards treated them as inferiors, and few of them ever held high offices in the government or in the Church. The Mestizos, the people of mixed Spanish and Indian ancestry, and the Indians, formed the largest part of the population.

Indian slaves carrying ore in baskets out of the mines in Mexico. The Spaniards forced the Indians to become their slaves and do all the hard work while the Spaniards lived a life of ease, enjoying the profits from the Indians' labour.



Spain did not allow her colonies to grow or manufacture anything that could compete with products from Spain. The government did its best to prevent the people of the colonies from visiting the United States or Europe for fear they might be influenced by the drive for liberty which had caused the American and the French Revolutions. But news travels and the people of the Spanish colonies were becoming restless under Spain's strict rule. They knew, too, that Spain was no longer the strong powerful nation she had been when she established her rule in America.

MEXICO

Father Hidalgo, a priest who worked among the Indians, was trying to improve conditions for his poverty-stricken people. He had silkworms brought into Mexico, hoping that a silk industry might develop in spite of Spain's policy about manufacturing. He planted vineyards so that the Mexicans could grow grapes to make their own wine. As soon as the Spaniards found out what he was doing, they tore up his grape-vines.

Hidalgo decided that it was time to revolt against Spain. He planned a rising to take place November 1, 1810, but his plans were betrayed to the government so he had to start fighting on September 16 before his forces were properly prepared. Evidently the Mexicans had been waiting for a leader, for over 100,000 rallied to his standard. For a time he was so successful that his forces advanced almost to the capital, but they ran out of ammunition and had to retreat. Father Hidalgo was on his way to the United States to ask for help and arms when he was captured and executed. His followers regarded him as a saint sent to deliver them and they looked upon the spot where he was executed as holy ground. They named a town in Texas after him although you cannot find his name on any map. Since the Spaniards would not let anyone mention his name, the Mexicans rearranged the letters, leaving out the H which is not pronounced, and called the town Goliad.

This rebellion failed and although Father Hidalgo was put to death, for the Mexicans "his soul goes marching on". Other leaders took up the struggle and the country was torn by revolution for years. Sometimes the rebels were successful; sometimes they were brutally suppressed. The Mexican War of Liberation, as the people of Mexico proudly call it, continued until 1821 when Mexico became an independent republic.

SIMON BOLIVAR

The revered hero of the revolution in South America was Simon Bolivar, often called "the Washington of South America". He was born in Venezuela but went to Spain for his education, where he learned about the new spirit of liberty which had stirred the French to rise against their rulers. Bolivar visited the United States and he was inspired by what he learned there. He longed to see his own country free.

When Bolivar returned to Venezuela, he joined the group fighting to throw off the rule of Spain. Here, as in Mexico, the struggle was a long one. Venezuela declared its independence in 1811 but it was not until 1820 that the Spaniards were driven out. Simon Bolivar won the title of Liberator by helping to free the countries now known as Colombia, Panama, Ecuador and Peru. When the southern part of Peru became an independent republic, it took the name Bolivia in honour of this dauntless leader.

By 1824 the power of Spain in South America was destroyed. All her former colonies, except Cuba and Puerto Rico, had become independent republics.

THE UNITED STATES FORBIDS ANYONE TO INTERFERE WITH THE NEW REPUBLICS

Once Spain was driven out, there was danger that other European nations might try to take over the lost colonies, or that they might help Spain to regain them. The United States had several reasons for objecting to any interference from Europe. One was that the Americans favoured the republican form of government and approved of colonies declaring their independence. Another was that the Americans now hoped to enjoy trade with the countries which under Spain's rule had not been allowed to trade with any nation but Spain. Still another was that they feared for their own peace and safety if wars developed in other parts of America.

In 1823 President Monroe issued a statement, called the Monroe Doctrine, which declared that since the United States took no part in European affairs, the nations of Europe should not interfere in America. Britain supported the stand taken by the Americans, for Britain had no wish to see Spain an important power in America again, and the British, too, hoped to trade with the new republics.

For Further Study

At the end of each unit, suggestions are made for further study and activities. Since schools differ greatly in the amount of supplementary material available for research, the number and variety of these activities is quite extensive. Some of them need only the textbook for reference; others require additional research material. Some pupils will be interested in making murals, some in preparing dramatizations, and others may prefer to make written reports, such as letters, diaries, or newspaper articles, or to present television programmes like

"Live a Borrowed Life", or radio interviews. The activities are intended to provide for individual differences and for special interests. The list is by no means an exhaustive one. Teachers and pupils will think of many equally good activities.

1. If there is a museum in or near your school, the class might visit it to look at pictures, costumes, furniture, household and farm equipment which show what life was like in pioneer days.

2. The class might form committees to prepare a history of their own community. Activities for different groups could include:

(a) Beginning a collection of books, pamphlets and newspaper articles about the community, if any can be found;

(b) Preparation of an account of the first settlement on the site;

(c) A chart of the growth of population from the founding down to the last census;

(d) A mural showing the first house, the first mill, the first store, the first church, the first school;

(e) A mural showing costumes of the period when the first settlers came;

(f) A mural depicting household equipment, such as cooking utensils, spinning-wheels, candle moulds, etc.;

(g) A mural depicting farm implements, and methods of clearing the land, sowing, and harvesting in pioneer days;

(h) The subjects of the murals might also become illustrations for the history of the community if put into book form;

(i) Letters which might have been written to friends and relatives in the old country by the early settlers;

(j) Reports on the amusements which the pioneers enjoyed;

(k) Reports on the development (and in some cases the decline) of industries in the district;

(l) A time line marked with the important events which have taken place in the community since the coming of the first settler.

3. Make a map of Ontario marking on it all the places which were established towns or villages in 1800.

4. Louis Hemon's book *Maria Chapdelaine* gives a good picture of life on the fringe of a settlement in Quebec. Some members of the class might read it and select parts for reading to the class.

5. Have you ever read Kipling's *Captains Courageous,* or seen the moving picture based on it with Spencer Tracy playing the lead? It is a good story about fishermen on the East Coast.

6. If you are interested in stories about the sea you might enjoy *Redcoat Sailor* by R. S. Lambert.

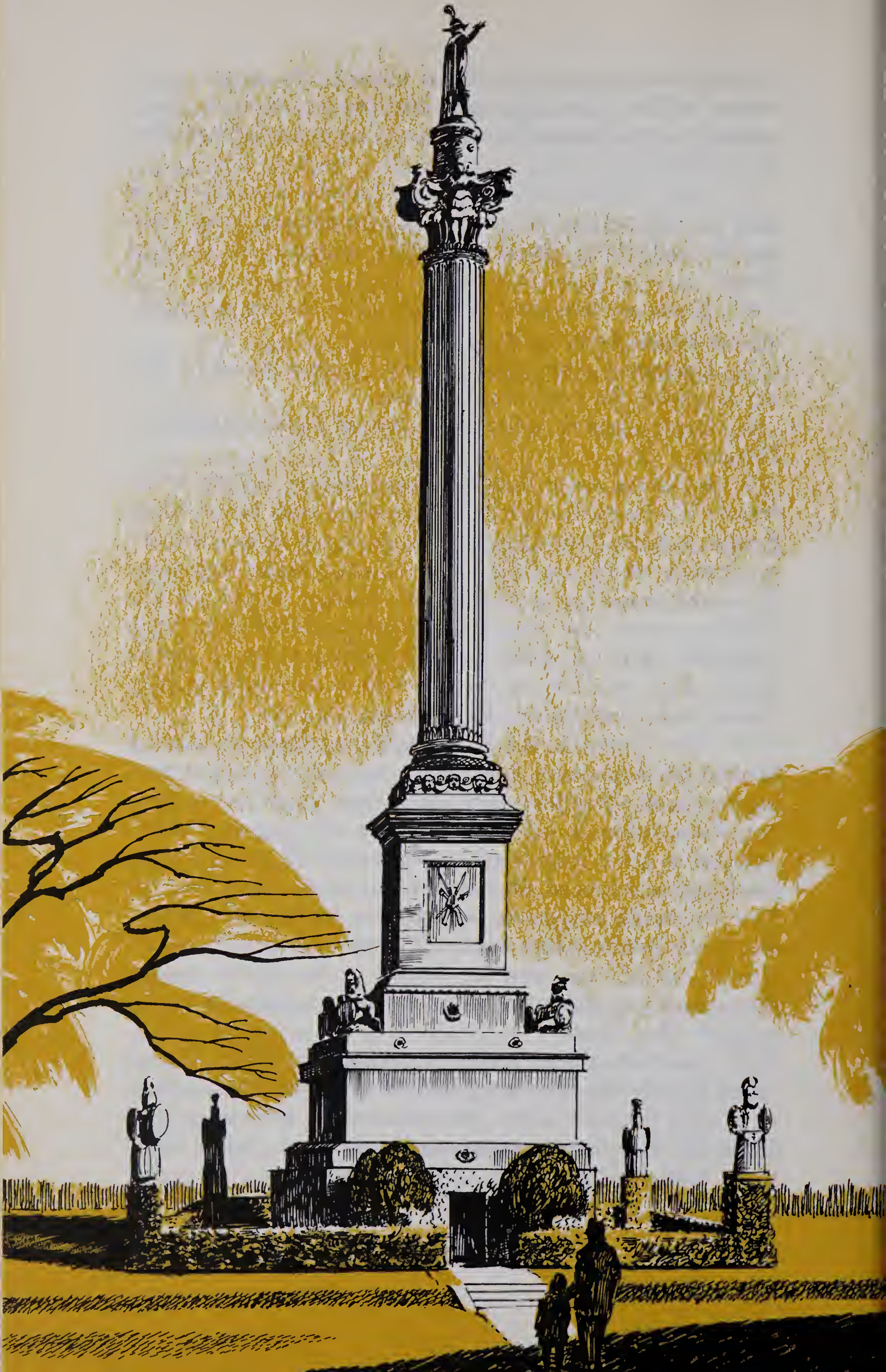
7. Dramatize a scene in a tavern where a group of men are discussing the Louisiana Purchase.

8. Make a mural depicting the life of Father Hidalgo of Mexico.

9. Present a scene showing Simón Bolivar talking to his friends in Venezuela after he had returned from his travels in Europe and the United States. He would tell them about the revolutions which established the United States and overthrew the monarchy in France. His listeners would ask him questions about the new governments established in those countries. Some of them would be eager to rebel against Spain; others would argue that it would be impossible to overthrow the rule of Spain in their country.

10. One group in the class might undertake to make *A Book of Ships,* showing ships, boats, and canoes such as were used in the nineteenth century. Draw them yourselves or paste in pictures cut from old magazines and newspapers. For this unit put in a fur brigade of canoes leaving Montreal for the West, fishing boats of the Atlantic provinces, ships from the New Brunswick shipyards, sailing ships loaded with lumber for Great Britain, ships of the French and British navies, Spanish sailing ships carrying cargoes to the Spanish possessions, pirates attacking British or American vessels. Later you can add other ships.

11. Another group might undertake to collect stamps which depict scenes belonging to each unit. For this one, there is a 1955 five-cent stamp commemorating pioneer settlers. There will be other stamps for other units which can be added to the book.



II. *Canada at War With Her Neighbour*

7. The War of 1812-1814

> "The cheers that stir the sacred hill
> Are but mere promptings of the will
> That conquered then, that conquers still;
> And generations yet shall thrill
>   At Brock's remembered name."
>
> Charles Sangster: *Brock*

WAR IN EUROPE AFFECTS AMERICAN TRADE

Before the American Revolution, the British colonies in America had enjoyed a prosperous trade with England and with the West Indies. This trade continued after the United States became independent. The Americans then also developed a thriving trade with France and other European countries. In fact, during the many years that France and Britain were busy with the European war, they needed the supplies from America more than ever. As a result, the American shipowners, merchants, and farmers were making excellent profits selling to both countries.

After a long struggle Napoleon conquered most of the continent of Europe. If Britain had not had control of the seas, he would have invaded England. He knew that Britain depended on trade with America, and therefore he tried to destroy that trade by declaring that no nation could trade with Britain. This would have been very serious for Britain if he had been able to enforce his decree, but, fortunately, his navy was not strong enough. Britain defiantly answered him by saying that no nation could trade with France or with any of the countries controlled by France.

Whenever the British could, they captured ships carrying goods to France. Whenever the French could, they captured ships going to England. Neither nation was trying to hurt American trade, but, of course, these policies were very hard on the Americans who had been selling goods to both countries at unusually high prices. Since the British navy was stronger than the French navy, naturally the British seized more American ships than the French could. In fact, between 1804 and 1807 the British took over a thousand American ships while the French took only about five hundred. While the Americans, of course, resented all their losses, they blamed the British more than they did the French, even though Napoleon was the first to interfere with their trade. After all, not only were they losing more ships to the British but they also remembered vividly the War of Independence when the British were their enemies and the French were their allies.

Britain was fighting for her life. For a while it looked as if Napoleon might conquer the whole of Europe, including the British Isles, and then start looking for new worlds to conquer.

AMERICANS OBJECT WHEN BRITISH SEARCH THEIR SHIPS FOR DESERTERS

Life was very hard in the British navy and some of the sailors deserted. The British began to stop American ships and search them for deserters. If a British sailor was found he was taken off and made to work on a British ship. Occasionally American sailors who had no identification papers were also taken. The American Government protested but the British did not stop. Naturally, the Americans resented Britain's actions.

TROUBLE IN THE OHIO VALLEY

For generations the Ohio Valley had been the home and hunting grounds of Indian tribes, but when settlers began to move in, game became scarce. If more settlers came the Indians would be driven out of their ancestral hunting grounds. Tecumseh, an able and heroic leader of the Shawnees, determined to try to hold the land for the Indians. He formed a confederacy of the Indian tribes to defend their lands and stop the spread of the white men's settlements. When the Americans complained he replied that he was only following the example the Thirteen Colonies had set when they formed the United States. When the American Indian agent refused to give him ammunition, Tecumseh said, "My British father will not deny me; to him I will go."

Many Americans thought that the British traders were encouraging the Indians to attack the settlers. The western "war-hawks" in Congress insisted that this must be true because the Indians had guns and ammunition made by the British. Since guns and ammunition were the goods the Indians wanted most in return for their furs, the fact that the Indians had British guns did not prove that the British were encouraging them but it is quite possible that some of the traders were for they did not want settlers in fur country any more than the Indians did. Young Americans had grown up believing that Britain was their natural enemy and the presence of British guns in Indian camps was a welcome excuse for driving the British out of North America.

SOME AMERICANS WANTED MORE LAND

Many settlers had already come to Upper Canada from the United States, and in letters to their old homes they told of fertile lands, good climate, excellent timber. Some Americans thought they should take this territory. So many of their countrymen had settled in Canada that they thought there would be very little difficulty in taking control of it for the United States.

THE AMERICANS WERE NOT UNITED ABOUT THIS WAR

When the vote was taken in Congress to declare war, 79 members of the House of Representatives voted for it; 49 voted against it. Likewise, in the Senate there were 19 for war, 13 against. Thus it is clear that it was by no means a popular war in all the states.

The people of the New England States were strongly opposed to the war. Even though they had suffered more than the other states as a result of Britain's policy of seizing neutral ships, they were making enormous profits running the blockade and selling their goods to war-torn Europe. War would ruin their trade. The day war was declared, the flags in Boston were flown at half-mast. Even after the war began, New Englanders took very little part in it. They refused to invest their money in war loans, and many of them continued to trade with the British whenever they could. The "war-hawks" were from the west and south, but the southerners were not too eager to strengthen the power of New England by adding another northern state, and the westerners were unwilling to reduce the forces that were guarding the frontier against the Indians.

"I believe that in four weeks from the time a declaration of war is heard on our frontier," declared one American, "the whole of Upper Canada and a part of Lower Canada will be ours."

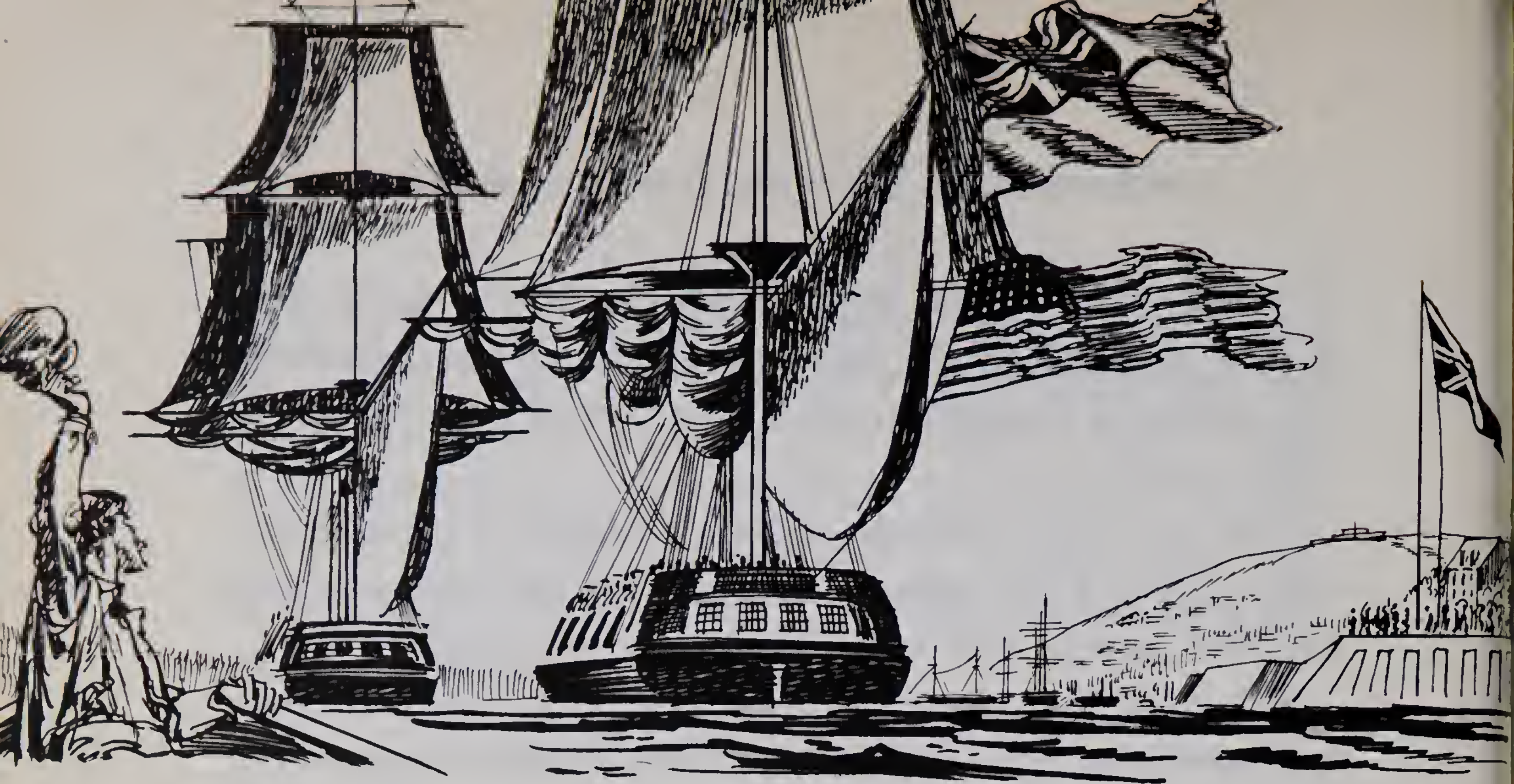
"We can take Canada without soldiers," boasted another. "We have only to send officers into the province and the people will rally round our standard."

The Americans were so proud of having won their own independence from Britain that they thought most of the people of Canada would be glad to join them. They had forgotten that there were many United Empire Loyalists in Canada who had good reason to hate the Americans for the treatment they had received at the end of the American Revolution and would resist the invasion.

Even Thomas Jefferson, who had been President from 1801 to 1809 and should have known better, boasted that taking Canada would be "a mere matter of marching".

The Americans knew that the British would not be able to send much help to the Canadians because they were so busy with their desperate struggle with France.

There were, however, factors in the situation which were not known to the people who thought it would be so easy to take Canada. They did not know that Canada, at that time, was a country practically without roads, a fact that made invasion difficult. They had forgotten that the Indians distrusted the Stars and Stripes and respected the Union Jack. They did not realize that a small force of trained soldiers, such as the British had in Canada, counted for more in battles than many times their number of untrained volunteers. And they did not know that the defence of Canada was in the hands of a brave soldier who had a real genius for warfare, Sir Isaac Brock.



Whenever they could, American ships attacked British ships bringing supplies to Canada. The British frigate *Shannon* attacked the American *Chesapeake* in June, 1813, and captured it in a fifteen-minute battle near Boston. Young Lieutenant Provo Wallis, a Canadian in the Royal Navy, had the honour of leading the captured prize ship into Halifax Harbour.

THE WAR AT SEA

Immediately after war was declared the commander of the American navy set out to menace British shipping, and to protect American trade. In his first encounters with British ships he was successful. But by 1813 the British navy, no longer so much involved in the war with France, regained control of the seas and began a successful blockade of the American coast, which continued until the end of the war.

IN THE WEST

If the Americans had been able to cut the line of the St. Lawrence and Great Lakes waterway, the British would have lost everything west of it. The moment Sir Isaac Brock learned about the declaration of war he sent word to Captain Roberts at St. Joseph's Island, telling him either to attack the Americans at Fort Michilimackinac or to be ready to defend St. Joseph's. Roberts surprised and took

Michilimackinac. This ensured control of the routes to the west and it gave the Indians confidence in Britain's power.

Shortly after the Americans lost Fort Michilimackinac, General Hull, in command of the western American forces which gathered at Detroit, crossed over to Sandwich. There he issued a proclamation in which he announced to the Canadians, "I tender you the invaluable blessings of Civil, Political, and Religious Liberty. . . . You will be emancipated from Tyranny and Oppression and restored to the dignified station of Freemen." At the same time he warned the Canadians that any white soldier found fighting by the side of an Indian would not be taken prisoner but would be killed on the spot. He was surprised to find that the Canadians were not interested in his "invaluable blessings".

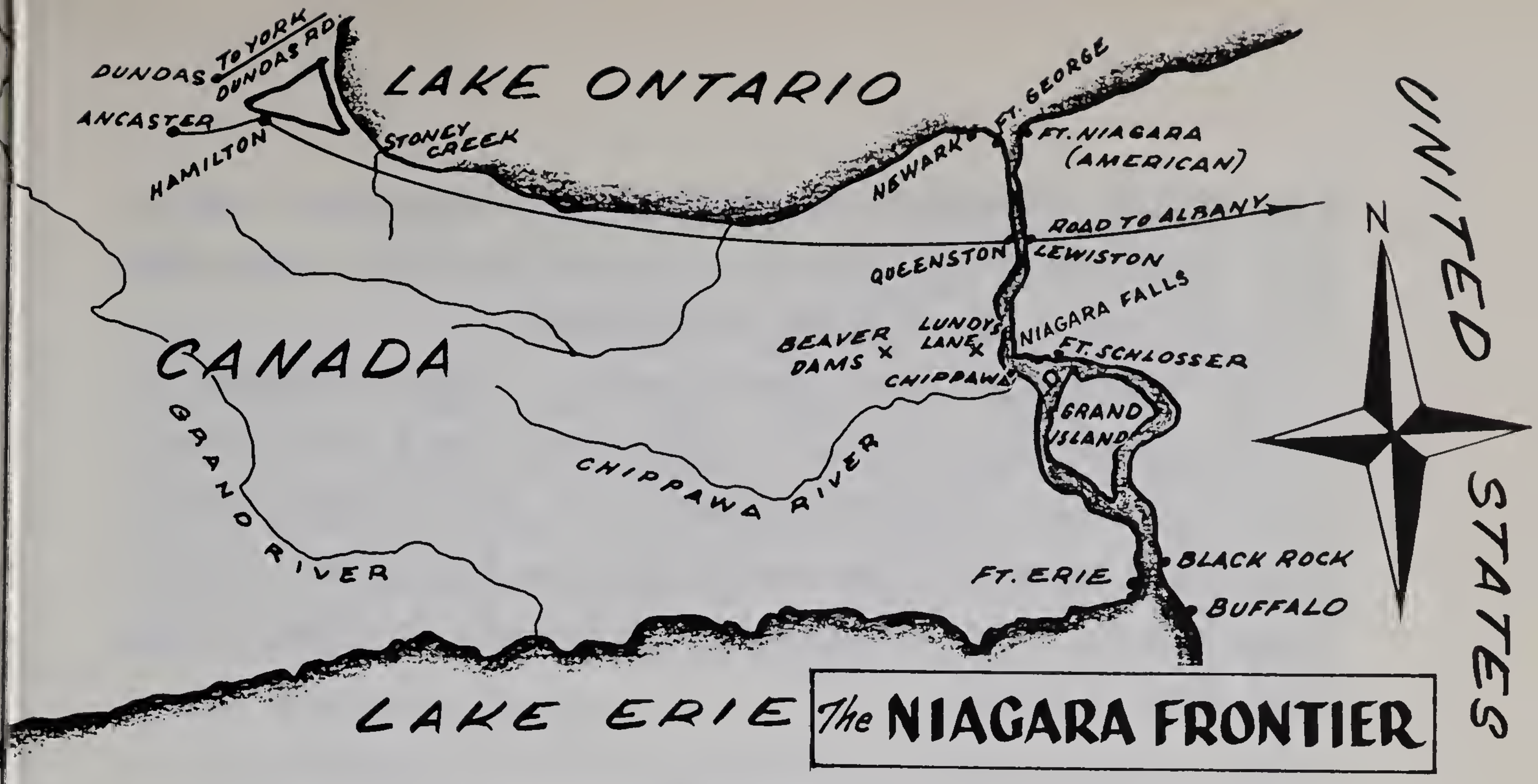
The Americans had good reason to fear Britain's Indian allies, for Tecumseh had decided to join the British and had already defeated American forces on their way to Detroit. His men had captured valuable supplies and despatches. When Brock arrived to attack Detroit, he thanked Tecumseh for his services and Tecumseh, recognizing Brock's ability, turned to his warriors and said simply, "This is a man." The two great leaders respected and admired each other. Brock wrote about the great Indian chief: "A more sagacious or a more gallant warrior does not, I believe, exist. He is the admiration of everyone who addressed him."

Although Brock's officers advised against attacking Detroit, Brock, encouraged by Tecumseh, determined to attack the next day. When Hull saw the British regulars and the Indians approaching, he decided to surrender and thus, without a single shot being fired, the British took possession of Detroit. Brock hurried back to the Niagara frontier, but Tecumseh remained in the west where he helped to keep the Americans from recapturing Detroit. In 1813 the Americans won a decisive victory on Lake Erie at Put-In Bay and thus cut the British and their Indian allies off from supplies. The British withdrew from their headquarters at Amherstburg, but they were pursued by the Americans and defeated at Moraviantown and there Tecumseh, the great Shawnee chief, was killed in battle.

IN THE CENTRE

The Americans had drawn up a large army opposite Queenston and in the early hours of October 13, 1812, some of their forces succeeded in crossing the river and scaling the heights. Brock was a few miles away at Fort George. As soon as he heard of the attack he and his men hurried to help the garrison at Queenston. Early in the action Brock was killed, and the Americans thought they had won the day. To their surprise, the British rallied and drove them back. Some of the defeated Americans fled across the river, some drowned in the swift current, and nearly a thousand were taken prisoner. To-day a magnificent monument on Queenston Heights stands as a memorial to the brave and skilful soldier, Sir Isaac Brock.

In 1813 an American force took York and burned the provincial buildings. Another large American force drove the Canadians out of Fort George and Fort Erie. The British attacked the American headquarters at Sackett's Harbour but without success. The Americans were delighted that at last they were winning. In June, however, 704 Canadians made a bold midnight attack on a much larger American force encamped at Stoney Creek, five miles from Hamilton. The Americans were routed and forced to retreat to Fort George on the Niagara River.


The NIAGARA FRONTIER

DUNDAS
TO YORK
DUNDAS RD.
ANCASTER
HAMILTON
LAKE ONTARIO
STONEY CREEK
NEWARK
FT. GEORGE
FT. NIAGARA (AMERICAN)
ROAD TO ALBANY
QUEENSTON
LEWISTON
NIAGARA FALLS
LUNDYS LANE
BEAVER DAMS
FT. SCHLOSSER
CHIPPAWA
CANADA
GRAND ISLAND
CHIPPAWA RIVER
GRAND RIVER
FT. ERIE
BLACK ROCK
BUFFALO
LAKE ERIE
N
UNITED STATES

A short time later, about five hundred Americans planned an attack on the British under Lieut. Fitzgibbon at Beaver Dam. They had been so harassed by the Indians that they were determined to take Beaver Dam and drive the Indians out of the bush. Their plans were overheard by Laura Secord, the wife of a militiaman who was still recovering from the wounds he had received at Queenston Heights. Laura Secord at once determined to warn Lieut. Fitzgibbon, even though it meant a twenty-mile walk on a steaming hot day through thick forest and dense underbrush. At last she reached Fitzgibbon and gave him the news. He recognized what a heroic effort she had made and thanked her warmly. He had already learned from his Indian scouts about the proposed attack, but that does not alter the fact that Laura Secord is entitled to honour as a brave patriot. Fitzgibbon rode out to meet the attackers, who were by that time more than ready to surrender in order that he would protect them from the tomahawks and scalping knives of the Indians.

These defeats at Stoney Creek and Beaver Dam so discouraged the Americans that they gave up all their conquests in the Niagara country. When they withdrew from Fort George, they burned the village of Newark, leaving the inhabitants homeless to face the cold winter.

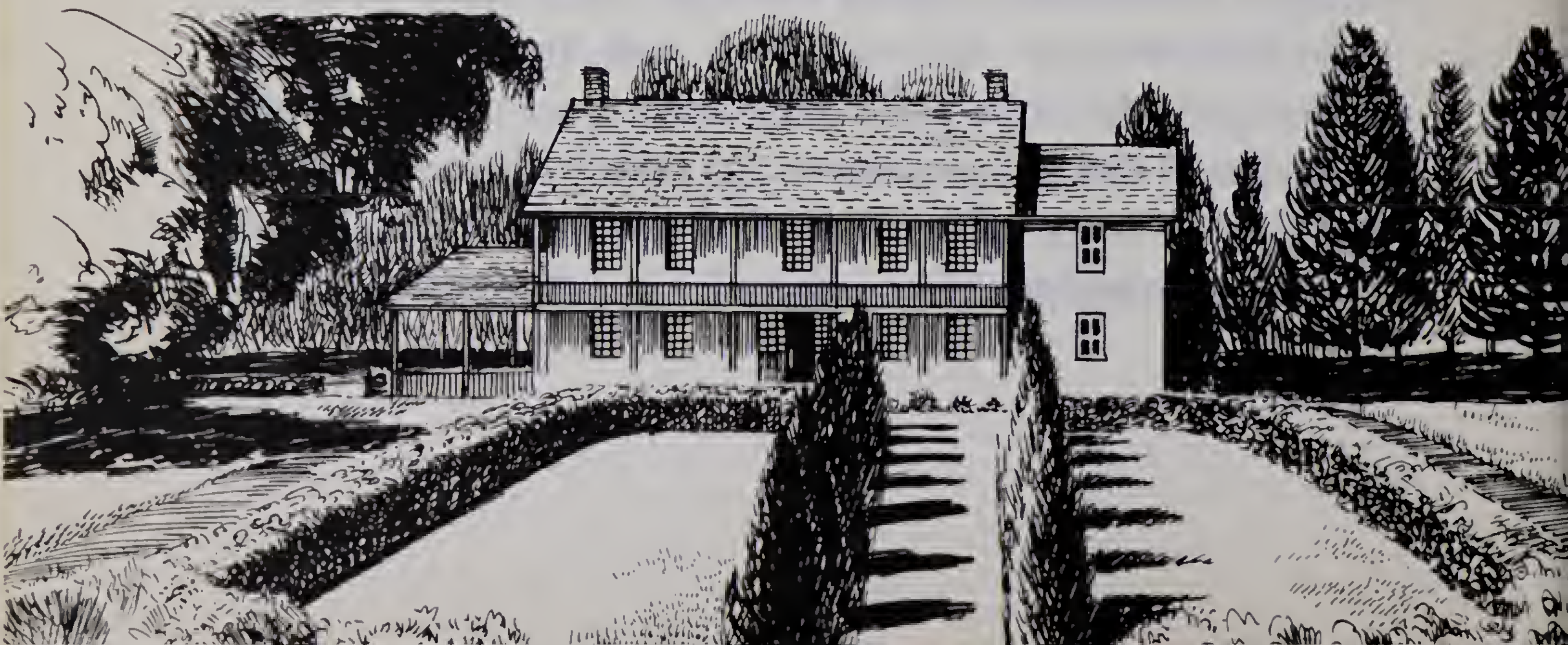
The British retaliated by driving the Americans out of their forts on the American side and burning Lewiston, Fort Schlosser, Black Rock, and Buffalo.

The Americans were determined to regain control of the Niagara Peninsula, so in 1814 they sent a well-trained army under a competent general. A hard-fought battle, one of the fiercest of the entire war, was fought at Lundy's Lane in July, 1814. Both sides lost heavily, but the British held their position.

IN THE EAST

By 1813 the Americans realized that they had made a mistake using so many of their troops in the west. One writer has said, "The forces of the United States struck at the leaves and branches of British power in the north instead of attempting to cut it down by attacking its trunk on the Lower St. Lawrence." They could have made the war very much more difficult for Canada and Britain if they had realized earlier that they should concentrate on cutting the line of communication between Montreal and Kingston. Now they sent two armies to attack Montreal. One under General Hampton came by the Lake Champlain route, and the other, under General Wilkinson, started down the St. Lawrence to meet him. Hampton was stopped on the Chateauguay River by a small well-trained force of

The Gage House at Stoney Creek, once the home of James Gage and his wife Mary, is now a historical museum. Here, after the battle of Stoney Creek, Mary Gage looked after the wounded soldiers from both sides.



French-Canadian regulars under Col. de la Salaberry, and his army retreated across the border. Wilkinson had crossed the river at Prescott and was advancing towards Montreal by land and water when the rearguard of his army was attacked at Crystler's Farm and suffered heavy losses. The rest of his troops hastily took to their boats and ran the rapids down to Cornwall. There Wilkinson learned that Hampton had been driven back, so he, too, retreated to the American shore.

In the spring of 1814 Napoleon was defeated and exiled to Elba. Since Britain was now able to send reinforcements to Canada, the Americans began to realize that it would be difficult, if not impossible, to take Canada.

In August, 1814, a combined naval and military force from Halifax sailed into Chesapeake Bay, landed, and met a large force of Americans, made up of about four hundred regular soldiers, four hundred seamen, and about five thousand militia, at Bladensburg. The President and his Cabinet rode out from the Capitol to watch the battle. Here, again, the superiority of the trained soldiers over poorly trained militia won the day. After a few volleys from the British regulars the militia turned and fled. The American regulars and the seamen put up a brave fight but they had to surrender. That night the British forces marched into Washington, burned the government buildings, and then marched in good order back to their ships, without a single shot being fired at them.

Meanwhile Sir George Prevost, the Governor-General, set out to attack Plattsburg on Lake Champlain. He was not a good general, and, though he had a large force of well-trained soldiers, he refused to attack Plattsburg unless the British naval forces won control of Lake Champlain. The naval force was defeated and Prevost retreated ingloriously, losing his chance to win a decisive victory for Britain.

Everyone was weary of fighting. The New England States even talked about making a separate peace with Great Britain. The people who had thought it would be easy to take Canada were not eager to go on with the war when they found what little headway they were making. President Madison warned the Americans that conscription would be necessary if they planned to continue the war. Farmers who could not sell their grain wanted peace.

The British, too, had had enough of fighting in Europe, and, moreover, they knew that war might break out again in Europe and they would once more have to use all their resources there. As for the Canadians, they had never wanted war.

The Treaty of Ghent, signed on Christmas Eve, 1814, brought the war to an end. Neither nation gained any territory. Arrangements were made for commissions to meet and settle disputes about the boundaries between the two countries.

From that day to this Canada and the United States have been at peace with each other.

For Further Study

1. Discuss the reasons why Britain and France wanted to increase their purchases from the Americans when they were at war. What supplies was Britain eager to buy from the United States during the war?
2. Write an account that might have appeared in a Toronto paper reporting the American invasion of Upper Canada.
3. Make a mural showing scenes from the War of 1812-14. You might include the surrender of Hull to the British at Detroit, the meeting of Brock and Tecumseh, the naval battle

at Put-In Bay, the burning of York. You will think of many other scenes.

4. Mark on a map all the places in which battles took place during the war.

5. Dramatize some of these scenes:

(a) A pioneer family first hearing the news of the invasion;

(b) The meeting of Brock and Tecumseh;

(c) Soldiers in an American camp discussing how easy it will be to take Canada;

(d) The interview between Laura Secord and Lieutenant Fitzgibbon;

(e) Three or four American generals discussing how they might have won if they had attacked Montreal with stronger forces early in the war; for this scene you should use a map so that one of the generals can point out just how they would have advanced on Montreal, and what the effect on Upper Canada would have been if they had taken control of any part of the St. Lawrence west of Montreal.

6. "But for Sir Isaac Brock the Americans would have taken Canada." Discuss this statement.

7. "If the American Government had been better informed about conditions in Canada, it would have hesitated to undertake this war." What should the Americans have known about Canada before they undertook the invasion?

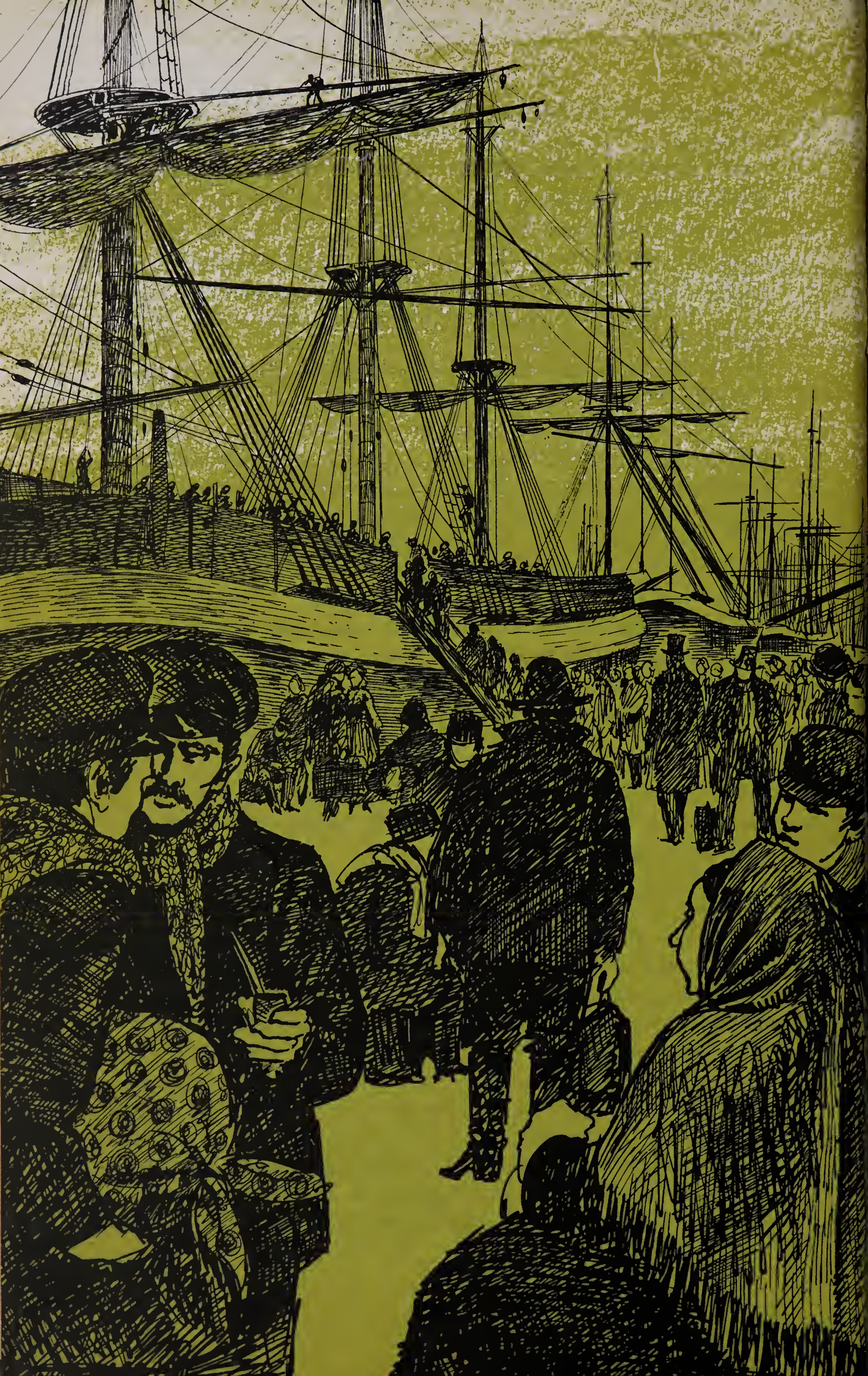
8. Fifteen days after the Treaty of Ghent was signed the British attacked New Orleans. Make a report of Andrew Jackson's defence of New Orleans.

9. Write a letter that a British soldier might have sent to his family after the Battle of Queenston Heights.

10. One group might read the story of the battle between the *Shannon* and the *Chesapeake* in Archibald MacMechan's *Old Province Tales* or in William Wood's *The War with the United States* (Chronicles of Canada) and make a group report on it to the class.

11. Another group might read the story of Laura Secord in Donald French's book *Famous Canadian Stories* and make a report on it to the class.

12. Add to your *Book of Ships* pictures of British, American, and French ocean-going warships at the time of the war. Add also ships of the type which fought at Put-In Bay.



III. *The Rising Tide of Immigration*

8. Settlers Pour into the Continent

“They say there’s bread and work for all,
The sun shines always here.”
COUNTESS OF DUFFERIN: *Lament of the Irish Emigrant*

WHY THEY CAME

After the Napoleonic Wars ended in 1815, there was great distress in Britain. In the factories machines were making great quantities of cloth quickly and cheaply. The people of the towns and villages or on small holdings in the country, who had worked part time at spinning and weaving, no longer could count on this for part of their livelihood. Fewer people were needed for England’s great textile industry. More and more landlords in Scotland were enclosing their land to raise sheep to provide wool for the hungry mills. Tenants who had farmed small plots of land were driven off to make way for sheep. In Ireland there had been a bitter but unsuccessful rebellion and the laws against Roman Catholics were still very severe there.

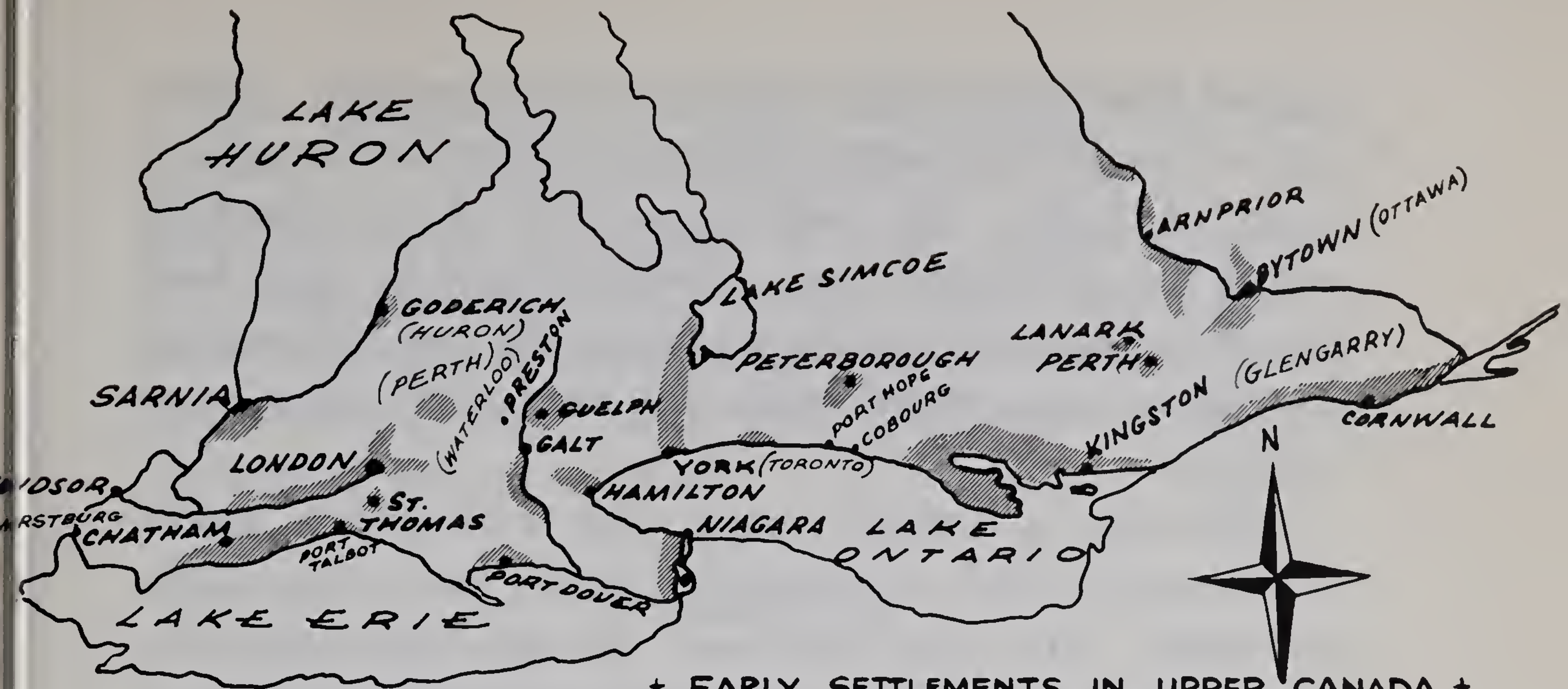
When regiments were disbanded at the end of the war, many soldiers could not find jobs. Officers were put on half-pay and began to look for some way of adding to their income. The government encouraged half-pay officers and soldiers to go to the colonies. In case of war with the United States it would be well to have experienced soldiers there ready to defend their new homes.

Until the American Revolution thousands of people from the British Isles had gone to the Thirteen Colonies. Even after the Revolution, they continued to stream to the United States in search of land of their own and opportunities in a new country. As the lands near the east coast had all been taken up, the newcomers found they had to go farther and farther west to find good land. Many of them began to inquire about opportunities in the British provinces to the north where they would still be part of the British Empire.

Sometimes the members of a family all contributed to send one member to "the colonies". If his reports about the opportunities in the new land were favourable, other members of the family came as soon as they could.

NEW SETTLEMENTS

Many of the settlers paid their own way. Often, however, the British Government assisted war veterans to make new homes in the new land. Sometimes, too, the government spent large sums to send groups of the unemployed to settle in the colonies. John Galt, a Scottish novelist, formed the Canada Land Company in 1824, and under his direction the company bought over a million acres of land known as the Huron Tract, which included large areas in the counties of Lambton, Middlesex, Huron, and Perth along the shores of Lake Huron. The company also obtained nearly 280,000 acres of Crown reserves scattered throughout the western part of the province. It built a road through the forest, thus establishing communication


LAKE HURON
GODERICH (HURON)
(PERTH)
(WATERLOO)
PRESTON
GUELPH
GALT
SARNIA
LONDON
IDSOR
RSTBURG
CHATHAM
ST. THOMAS
PORT TALBOT
PORT DOVER
LAKE ERIE
LAKE SIMCOE
PETERBOROUGH
PORT HOPE
COBOURG
YORK (TORONTO)
HAMILTON
NIAGARA
LAKE ONTARIO
ARNPRIOR
BYTOWN (OTTAWA)
LANARK
PERTH
KINGSTON
(GLENGARRY)
CORNWALL
N

* EARLY SETTLEMENTS IN UPPER CANADA *

between Lake Huron and Lake Ontario. Settlers poured in, buying the land either for cash or on long term payments. Soon the towns of Guelph and Goderich were established. Shade's Mills was renamed Galt in honour of John Galt.

THE TALBOT SETTLEMENT

Colonel Tom Talbot came to Canada as an officer in the army with Colonel Simcoe. When he retired from the army he obtained a huge grant of land along the shore of Lake Erie. He was a member of a noble family in Ireland and there is a story that he left England because he had fallen in love with a lady of the royal family whom he could not hope to marry.

In 1803 he arrived with four followers at the mouth of the stream now known as Talbot Creek. Seizing an axe, he cut down the first tree. The site was called Port Talbot and there a three-room log cabin was built which served the Colonel as his home and his office. There "the once gay Tom Talbot", as he described himself, began the work of placing settlers on his land. The first settlers were given fifty acres of land free and had the privilege of buying another hundred and fifty for three dollars an acre. Talbot was not a philanthropist, bringing settlers to Canada as an act of charity. He made money out of his project by selling the additional acres. Even though he gave land free or at low cost to the first comers, the fact that part of the district was settled made the rest of the land more valuable.

Talbot had a terrible temper and if he took a dislike to a tenant he did not hesitate to force him to leave the settlement. His word was law. He gave his settlers no title deeds to their farms. He merely wrote their names in pencil on a large map hanging on the wall; when the land changed hands he rubbed out the one name and wrote in the new one. These pencil marks were as good as deeds, for everyone knew that Tom Talbot would keep his word.

Colonel Talbot was an interesting character. He never forgot nor let anyone else forget that he was a Talbot from Malahide Castle in Ireland. He considered himself lord of his settlement and ruled over the settlers like a medieval baron. Talbot never married, but on a cliff overlooking Lake Erie he built himself a large log house which he called Malahide Castle. Travellers who came to his home never knew how they would be received. Sometimes he made them welcome and was very courtly and entertaining. In a pioneer country only a very unsociable person would fail to offer food to visitors who came to his home even though they might be total strangers. Talbot always provided a meal for his visitors but sometimes, as soon as the meal was over or even before his guests had finished eating, he would announce that he had ordered his servant to bring them their horses, thus pushing them out. He was often rude to people who were unwilling to accept as many drinks as he offered them.

The settlement grew steadily, and before Talbot died in 1853 its population numbered over 70,000. Two flourishing towns had grown up in the Talbot settlement — London, the site which Colonel Simcoe had hoped to make the capital of Upper Canada, and St. Thomas, named after Talbot, though those who knew him would have agreed that he was no saint.

PETERBOROUGH

Conditions were so bad in southern Ireland in the 1820's that the British Government asked Peter Robinson of Upper Canada to supervise taking settlers to new homes there. Many of these Irish immigrants were very poor. Some of them had been small farmers who could not make a living when the price of produce fell after the Napoleonic Wars. Some were labourers who could not find work; others were small tradesmen whose business was ruined in the post-war depression. For many of them the government had to provide clothing and bedding before they could embark.

Robinson decided that the best area for these people would be in the district since called after him, Peterborough county. In 1825 he brought 2,024 people from County Cork. The journey was a difficult one. The immigrants were thirty-one days at sea, and then came the long tedious journey by bateau up the St. Lawrence. There was a delay at Kingston when over three hundred of the immigrants were laid low by fever and thirty-three died. At last the first group reached Cobourg and began to make its way across almost impassable roads to Rice Lake and then by flat-bottomed boats across Rice Lake and up the Otonabee River to Scott's Mills, where the city of Peterborough now stands.

When the Irish arrived there were a few settlers in the district already. To them Robinson gave the job of blazing trails, building shanties for the newcomers, and helping to bring the promised goods into the area chosen for settlement. Every family and every man over twenty-one received a hundred acres of land, and a log shanty was provided for every family. For a year and a half the settlers received a pound of pork and a pound of flour a day for every adult and half as much for each child. Each family received also "a cow, an axe, an auger, a hand-saw, two gimlets, 100 nails, three hoes, one kettle, one frying pan, one iron pot, five bushels of seed potatoes, and eight quarts of corn".

Peter Robinson was given £29,000 to bring these settlers out from Cork and supervise their settlement. Other groups followed, some paying their own way and some assisted by the British Government. A number of half-pay officers settled in the Peterborough district. One of the best known was Major Samuel Strickland whose log house was the first dwelling in Lakefield. His sisters, Mrs. Moodie and Mrs. Traill, whose husbands were also half-pay officers, arrived in the district in 1832. Susanna Moodie's book *Roughing It in the Bush* and Catherine Traill's *The Backwoods of Canada* give us good pictures of life in Upper Canada in pioneer days.

PERTH

The first settlers to come to Perth were seven hundred immigrants from Greenock, Scotland, who arrived in Quebec in September, 1815. Before winter set in the men explored the area in which they were to settle, leaving their families in Brockville until spring. The Scots were soon joined by about two hundred veterans, pensioners from a regiment which was disbanded in Canada after the war of 1812-14. The British Government encouraged these veterans to settle at Perth, because, even as early as 1816, it was planning the Rideau Canal and it recognized the importance of having trained soldiers settled along its route.

ARNPRIOR

Arnprior has an interesting history. Settlement began there in 1825 when an impoverished Scottish chieftain called The McNab obtained a grant of land, hoping to mend his fortunes in Canada. He was deep in debt. In fact, he escaped from his home in Scotland by one door while the King's officers were knocking at another, ready to arrest him and send him to prison for debt.

The McNab was given a grant of 1,200 acres in Renfrew county to which he was to bring settlers. He was a picturesque figure in Ontario's history, always meeting his settlers at Montreal or Quebec, dressed in his kilt and attended by a piper. He did not stay here very long. He quarrelled with nearly everybody. The truth is, he was a tyrannical ruler whose chief aim was to establish himself as a feudal landlord. The McNab made each family he brought out pay him £36 for the head of the family, £30 for his wife, and £16 for each child. He promised the settlers 100 acres, but he kept the deeds to the land and made the settlers pay him a bushel of grain for every cleared acre. He was determined that the settlers would be his tenants, and anyone who left his land ran the risk of being arrested. This system did not suit Canada and his settlers were dissatisfied. When a Toronto paper published an article relating what was happening, The McNab sued it for libel. As a result of the publicity this lawsuit brought, The McNab found it advisable to leave the country hastily, and he died, still poor, in Brittany. The settlers were then given deeds to their land by the government.

OTTAWA

After the war of 1812-14 the British Government decided that there must be a route between Montreal and Kingston which would be safe from attack in the event of war with the United States. The plan was to use a chain of lakes and rivers between Kingston and Ottawa, to widen and deepen them where necessary, and to build the canals needed to make it possible to move troops and supplies from Ottawa to Kingston. Since the Rideau River was one of the most important links in this waterway, the canal was called the Rideau. Most of the land at the proposed terminus on the Ottawa River was owned by Nicholas Sparks, who bought it in 1826 for $240. Sparks lived to realize a profit of $2,000,000 on his investment.

Work began on the canal in 1826 under Colonel John By, and the settlement was called Bytown. Engineers and soldiers from the regular army, labourers, and tradesmen poured into the area.

In its early days Bytown was a rough and roaring pioneer settlement. Fights and drunken brawls were common. Even when the canal was completed Bytown was still a lawless community. Lumbering became the chief industry and when the lumbermen came to town after their hard winter in the bush they wanted to have a good time, and that usually meant getting drunk. When the Scots gathered to celebrate St. Andrew's Night, or the Irish to celebrate St. Patrick's Day, sober citizens stayed at home. Crime was so common that law-abiding citizens united in 1837 to form an "Association for Preserving the Public Peace", but they were not very successful in their efforts to maintain law and order. By 1841 Bytown had built its own jail, but until that time the nearest jail was in Perth, fifty-three miles away.

In 1847 Bytown had a population of 6,000, and was incorporated as a town. Eight years later the name was changed to Ottawa, and in 1857 Queen Victoria, to the surprise of most Canadians, named Ottawa the capital of Canada.

WHAT ABOUT YOUR COMMUNITY?

It is not possible to deal in this book with the interesting history of all the towns and cities of Ontario. If your community has been described there is much more you can find out about it. Why not make it a class project to do some research about your own community?

THE POPULATION GROWS

More and more people came. Most of them stayed, though some who hoped to make a fortune without hard work found the struggle too difficult. Those who succeeded sent home glowing accounts of their life in the new land.

"Here you have no rent to pay," wrote a labourer in the Talbot settlement in 1830, "no poor rates and scarcely any taxes. No gamekeepers or lords over you. Here you can go and shoot wild deer, turkeys, pheasants, quail, pigeons, and other sort of game, and catch plenty of fish. . . . Cider is sold for five shillings a barrel; it is a land of liberty and plenty. . . . I would rather be so here than in England with £100 in my pocket."

Friends and relatives, encouraged by these accounts of success, began to look on Canada as a land of promise. The population doubled and redoubled.

Fewer immigrants came to Lower Canada where the good land near the settlements was already being farmed by the descendants of the early French settlers. The British American Land Company, established by John Galt after he left the Canada Company, bought about 800,000 acres of land in Lower Canada and brought a few settlers out. Since French-Canadian families were usually very large, the population grew rapidly even without many newcomers.

Settlers from the British Isles and disbanded soldiers who had fought in the war of 1812-14 settled in New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island. Land companies brought out families to take up land just as they did in Canada. In 1803, Lord Selkirk, a Scottish nobleman who was interested in organizing immigration to the colonies, brought about eight hundred people from Scotland to Prince Edward Island.

Hard times in the British Isles thus brought about rapid development in the British North American colonies.

9. Pioneer Days in Upper Canada

"His echoing axe the settler swung
Amid the sea-like solitude,
And rushing, thundering, down were flung
The Titans of the wood."

ALFRED B. STREET: *The Settler*

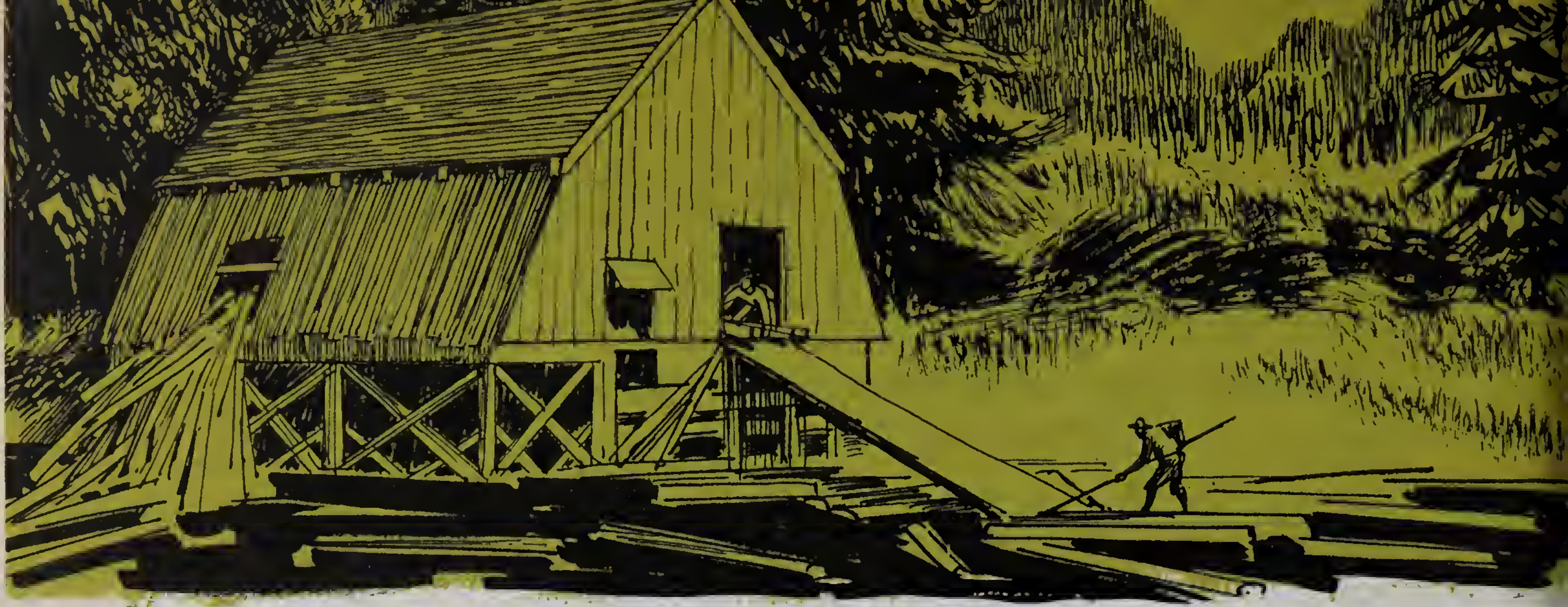
LIFE ON THE FRONTIER

The pioneers who came from Great Britain in the nineteenth century to take up land in the colonies faced the same difficulties which the Loyalists had met when they came. Most of them had little money left by the time they reached their land. A few, such as the half-pay officers and pensioned soldiers or those with prosperous relatives in the old country, were more fortunate.

HOMES

Some of the land agents provided cabins for their settlers, as Peter Robinson did in Peterborough county; some provided shelter for the first year for the families while the men built a cabin on their holding. Sometimes the government provided tents until cabins could be built. The Mennonites in Waterloo county lived in their Conestoga wagons until they could build homes.

The first cabins were of logs, with clay plastered between the logs both inside and out, and roofed with overlapping strips of bark. A blanket might serve as a door until a rough door of slabs split from logs could be made, or until sawn lumber could be bought. Rough shutters or oiled paper covered the small windows until glass could be obtained. The floor might be the hard earth or split logs laid with the flat side up.



"The erection of a sawmill is the first event in the formation of a settlement in the bush. It induces others to come to the neighbourhood since it offers the facilities of building timbers."—Thomas Need, *Six Years in the Bush.*

When sawmills were established in a district, the settlers were able to build larger and better houses, with doors that fitted snugly into their frames, glass windows, and plastered walls. Many a housewife looked forward with longing to the day when she could have a new house and relegate the old log cabin to service as a hen-house or pigsty. Where good building stone was available, there was work for skilled stone-masons to build substantial stone houses to replace the old log cabins.

FURNITURE

Many of the early pioneers made their own furniture. The first beds were made of boughs of spruce or cedar laid carefully, with the curve up so as to provide a little spring, and, if the family cared about comfort, covered over with small branches. Later four-poster beds were made with four upright poles connected by long ones for the sides and shorter ones for the ends. Strips of elm bark or of rope laced from side to side and from end to end, provided a foundation for the mattress, which was at first a bag filled with straw or corn husks. Later, feather ticks were made from the small feathers of the game birds, hens and geese.

It was the ambition of a good housekeeper to have feather ticks for all her beds and some to give her daughters when they were married.

Later the need for furniture attracted cabinet-makers to the settlements, and better chairs and tables, bedsteads and sofas, made from oak and walnut, took the place of the cruder home-made furniture. This furniture made by the early cabinet-makers is highly prized to-day by lovers of antiques.

CLEARING THE LAND

Almost everywhere the pioneer encountered thick forests. To-day we conserve our forests, but the early settler regarded it as his enemy, and by hard, back-breaking toil, cleared many acres that modern economists think should have been left for lumbering. Sometimes the settler cut down the trees and either hauled them away or left the logs to dry until he could burn them. Sometimes he girdled the standing trees to kill them, and then, when he thought they were dry enough to burn well, he chose a day when there was no wind and set fire to the dead trees. At first he sowed his crop between the stumps. Later the stumps were pulled out and either burned or piled along the edge of the field to make a fence. Few of these stump fences remain for they took up a lot of space and harboured weeds.

SOWING AND HARVESTING THE CROP

The modern farmer uses a tractor to draw the plough and a combine which both cuts and threshes the grain. The pioneers broke the ground with a spade or a hoe, sowed the seed by hand, cut the grain with a sickle or scythe, and threshed it on the granary floor with a flail. They had few horses or oxen. After he had cleared a space in the forest, many a farmer had to draw the plough himself.

It was in 1830 that Daniel Massey brought from the United States what was probably the first threshing-machine in Upper Canada. A reaper had been invented in England as early as 1823 but the English could hire labour so cheaply that they were not greatly interested in it. The Americans, more interested in labour-saving devices, first built reapers for sale in 1845. In the same year Daniel Massey opened his first factory for making farm implements at Newcastle, Ontario. It was many years, however, before the pioneer farmers were convinced of the value of the new machines or able to pay for them. This same Daniel Massey is the ancestor of several Masseys who have been outstanding in Canadian public life; Vincent Massey, Governor-General from 1952 to 1959, is probably known to all of you.

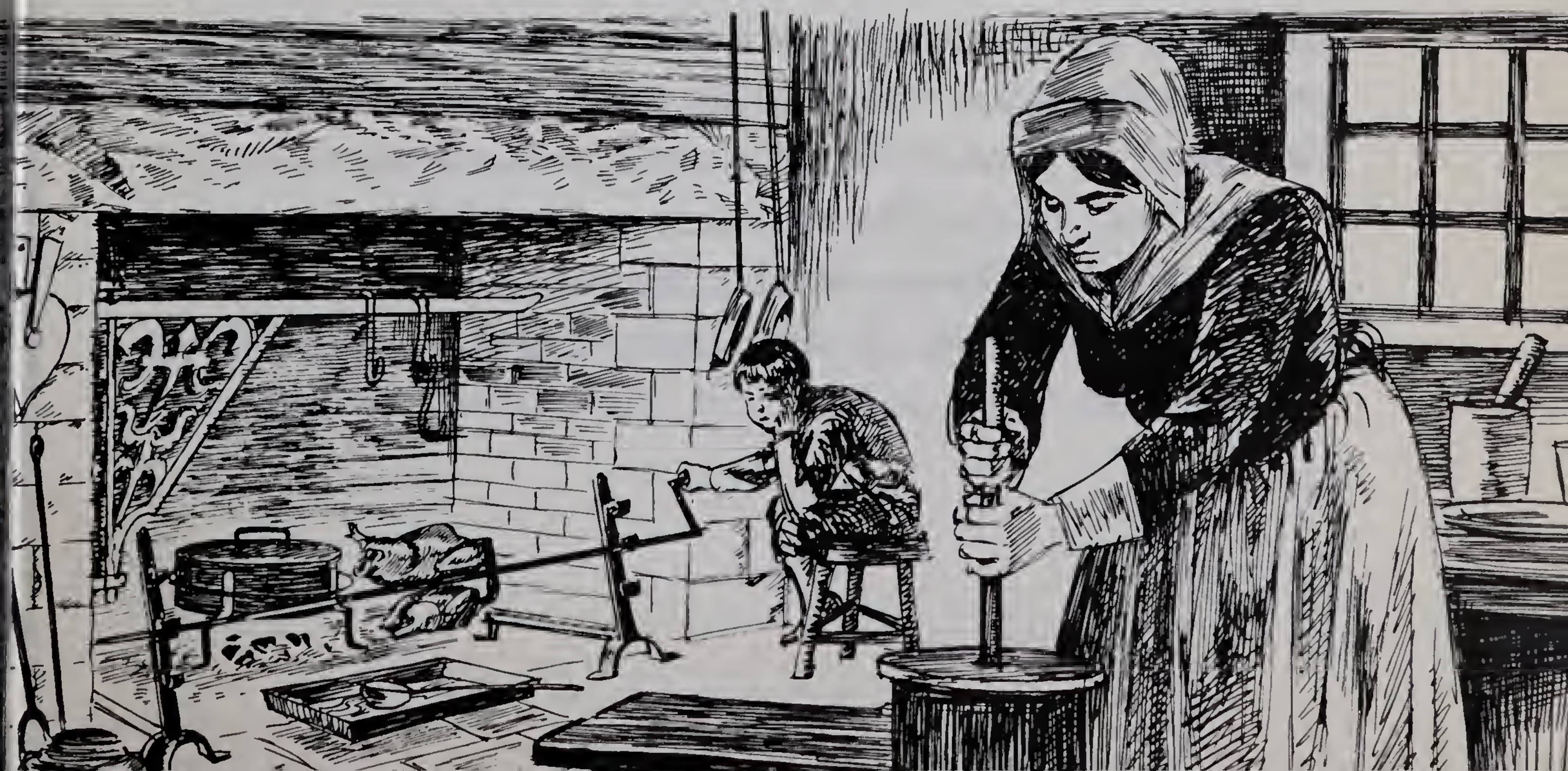
FOOD

Most of the cooking was done in the open fireplace, but some pioneers built outdoor ovens of clay similar to those the early French settlers used. In some homes bread was made in an iron kettle which was placed in the fireplace with live coals under and round it and on top. Later "reflectors" were used. These were oblong tin boxes with one side left open. The reflector was placed facing a bed of live coals, and the bread placed in pans raised a little from the bottom of the box so that the heat could circulate freely. Similar tin boxes were used by the more prosperous settlers for roasting meat. The roaster had an iron bar or spit on which the meat was placed, and a small handle on the outside. Many a pioneer child spent hours "turning the spit" so that the meat would cook evenly. It was an easy job compared to some of the work the children had to do but it must have been monotonous.

If there was no grist-mill nearby or if the settlers could not afford to pay the miller, they ground their own grain, either in hand-mills, or on the "hominy block", a hollowed-out stump. Corn was easier to grind than wheat, so porridge of corn-meal with maple sugar or maple syrup was a common breakfast dish, and fried corn-meal porridge was often served for supper. Corn-meal and buckwheat pancakes were served with maple syrup or wild honey or "pumpkin sauce" made by boiling pumpkins down to molasses. Corn flour sifted through a fine cloth made wholesome corn bread. The wheat they ground at home made nourishing bread as it contained the bran and the wheat germ, but the pioneer women often longed for the fine white flour they had used "back home". To please his wife, a farmer might set out from his backwoods farm before dawn carrying a bag of grain on his shoulder, trudge many miles over rough trails to the nearest mill, and return after dark with a bag of precious white flour.

Coffee and tea were too expensive for most of the pioneers. They found substitutes in "coffee" ground from roasted corn, or "tea" brewed from plants such as the

A pioneer home. The boy is weary of turning the spit and the woman of churning butter. Many pioneer women were homesick for the old land. "I am chained to my ragged acre," wrote one immigrant's wife to her sister. "Doubtless beyond the walls of the forest the world goes on. But I am no part of it."



hemlock or sassafras or from the inner bark of the maple tree. Whisky was cheap and plentiful and was consumed in large quantities. For many years scarcity of feed for farm animals prevented the settlers from keeping cattle over the winter, so there was little milk, butter, or cheese.

Beef, too, was scarce until the settlers began to grow turnips for feed. Pork, fresh, smoked, or salted, was the staple diet. The settlers built smokehouses in which the hams and shoulders were left for several days over a smudge of maple or beech logs. The rest of the meat was usually put into a barrel of strong brine. Fortunately, plenty of game and fish could usually be obtained to provide some variety in the pioneers' meals.

Wild strawberries, raspberries, gooseberries, cranberries, blackberries, and blueberries were plentiful. Imagine how glad the children were to see the berries ripening! Berry-picking was a welcome change from their usual work on the farm, and the juicy berries a welcome change in their diet. They picked as many as they could because what they did not eat right away were dried for winter use or preserved in maple syrup or molasses. Dandelion leaves, picked in the fields or the forest in the spring, made a good dish of "greens", which was something like spinach. The dandelion was a friend of the pioneer, not an enemy as it is to-day to the people who prize their green lawns.

Many pioneer families lived on short rations during their first years in their new homes, but their fare improved when they were able to grow feed for cattle and enjoy milk, butter, and cheese, and when they could afford white flour from the grist-mills and tea and coffee from the cross-roads stores. The ability to "set a good table" was a matter of pride for the pioneer woman, for it showed not only the increasing prosperity of the family, but her own skill as a housewife.

CLOTHING

The pioneers paid little attention to fashion in clothing. When the clothes they brought with them wore out, if they could not afford to buy cloth from the settlements, they made their own. They sheared the sheep and washed, carded, and spun the yarn. Sometimes they dyed it with dyes made from sumach, golden-rod, or the bark from trees. If there was no weaver in the district, the housewife often wove it herself into sturdy homespun cloth. The younger children had to be content with hand-me-downs, and one coat might be used by many children. Leather for shoes was tanned at home and sometimes the father of the family undertook to make shoes for his children. Later, travelling shoemakers and tailors went from house to house, taking part of their pay in board and lodging and part in money or goods which they could sell in the settlements. They were welcomed not only for their services in making shoes and clothing but also for the news they brought from the other settlements they had visited.

AMUSEMENTS

There were no moving pictures, no radios, no television sets in those days. The “bees”, when settlers gathered to help their neighbours, provided opportunities for fun as well as for work. Even when the barn-raising and stumping-bees became a thing of the past, neighbours found excuses to summon their friends to a bee. The women organized quilting bees, picking and carding bees to prepare the wool for spinning, feather-picking bees, apple-paring bees. Perhaps the total of work done at these bees was no greater than the women could have accomplished if they had not spent their time preparing food for their guests and going to other people's bees. These gatherings, however, were very important in the lives of the pioneer women for they had few opportunities for social life. Often their nearest neighbour was miles away. The bees gave them an opportunity to exchange not only the gossip of the district but also recipes and household hints. New arrivals from the old country found out from the experienced pioneers the best ways of making soap or candles, and young mothers learned about the symptoms and treatment of children's diseases from an older woman whose claim to wisdom was often that she must know "for she had buried four". There were no doctors or public health nurses in the backwoods.

The corn-husking bee in the autumn was an exciting occasion for the young men and the girls. As they laughed and teased, the young men looked eagerly for an ear of corn with red kernels. Any young man lucky enough to find one had the privilege of kissing the girl who sat beside him, if he could catch her. After the work was done, the young people enjoyed dancing and games.

Young people in the country districts often travelled miles over rough roads and bush trails to go to a dance. It was said of one log schoolhouse in Guelph Township that it was built "more for the purpose of holding a yearly dance than for educational purposes". Sometimes a bagpiper supplied lively music for the reels and jigs. Fiddlers sawed away at such tunes as "Money Musk", "Old Dan Tucker", and "Pop Goes the Weasel". Even if there was no one to provide music, that did not stop the dance. The young people clapped their hands, whistled, and sang, and above the din rose the commands of the caller-off: "Salute your partners", "Allemande left and do-si-do", "Gents hook up and ladies bounce back".

Travelling circuses from the United States toured the province and even made their way into the backwoods districts. People drove for miles to see the strange animals of the "travelling menagerie", and children talked for months about the wonders they had seen.

Most of the time, however, the settlers had to provide their own fun. Sometimes young and old gathered in the schoolhouse for a spelling bee. Sometimes a travelling singing teacher visited the settlement and people assembled in the church or in the schoolhouse for a singing school, to sing old songs and learn new ones under his direction. Settlers who had enjoyed a good education before they came to make their homes on backwoods farms organized literary and debating societies to provide education and entertainment in their community.

Few people owned many books. Since books were scarce and expensive they were highly prized. In many homes it was the custom for the father to read a book aloud in the evening while the family gathered around the fireside.

EDUCATION

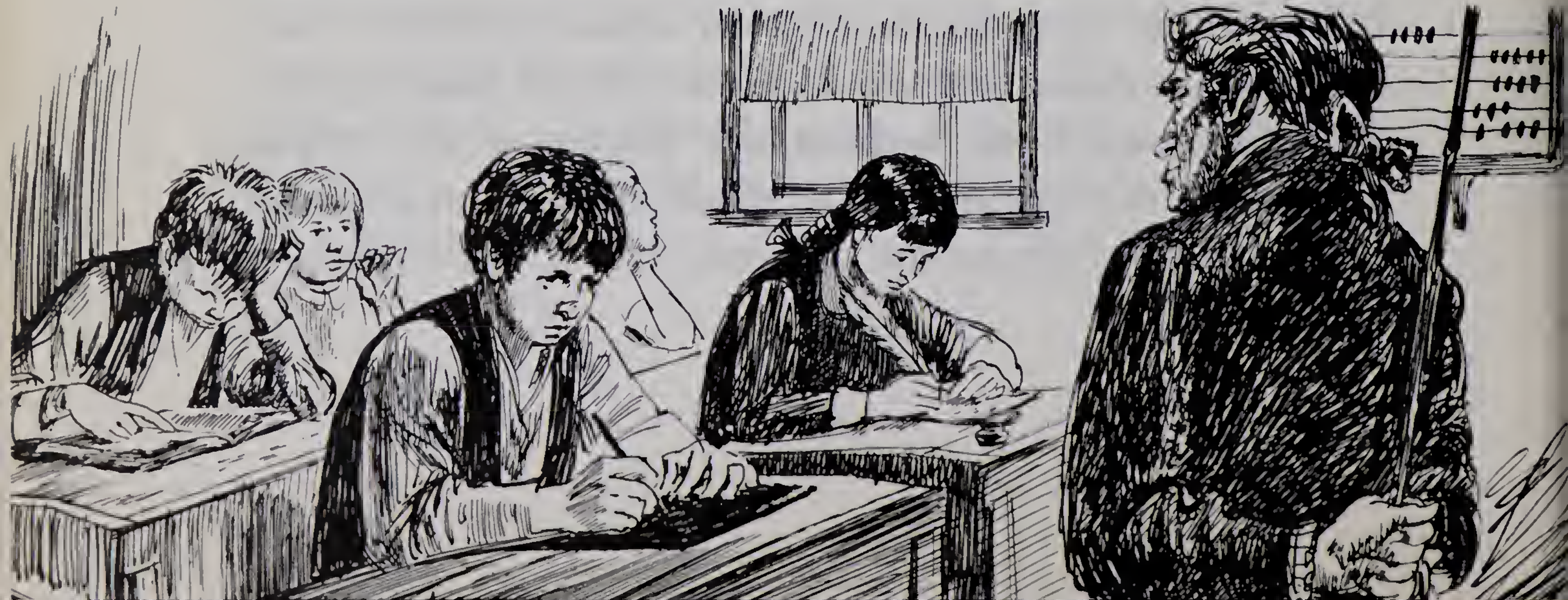
Many children in the backwoods who had no opportunity to go to school grew up unable to read and write unless their parents had the time and skill to teach them. As the population of a district grew, schools were established. Sometimes there was a good teacher but all too often the only qualification the teacher had was that he was not able to do the hard work on a farm. Teachers sometimes received their pay for the year in wheat, possibly worth about $100, and received their board and lodging free, "boarding round" in turn at the homes of the pupils. Sometimes the settlers could afford to pay a teacher for only a few months in the year.

There were few books in the schools and no blackboards. Goose-quill pens were still in use. Fountain pens and even steel pen-nibs had not yet been invented. Paper was scarce and expensive, so the children used slates which could be cleaned off for the next lesson. There were even some schools to which the children brought birch-bark on which to write their arithmetic and spelling. Little attempt was made to teach anything but the three "R's" — "Reading, 'Riting, and 'Rithmetic", frequently "taught to the tune of the hickory stick".

For many years the only schools were those to which the parents paid fees. In 1844, Dr. Egerton Ryerson was appointed Superintendent of Education in Upper Canada and town councils were made responsible for providing schools. Until 1871, however, there were still some districts in which the Town Council did not levy taxes to pay the teacher's salary, so the parents had to pay fees if they wanted their children to go to school.

In Nova Scotia Dr. Charles Tupper persuaded the Legislative Assembly in 1864 to pass an act requiring the people to pay taxes to maintain the schools of that province. In Lower Canada, there were many schools run by the Roman Catholic Church for the French-speaking children. It was, however, many years before acts were passed in the various provinces requiring parents to see that their children went to school.

A country school in pioneer days. In some districts there were no schools. In others the older children could attend only when they were not needed to work on the farm or in the home.



When the Lieutenant-Governor visited the Peterborough settlement in 1827 the chief complaint of the settlers was "the want of clergymen to administer to us the comforts of our Holy Religion and good schoolmasters to instruct our children". Where large groups of one denomination, such as the Roman Catholics in Glengarry and the Presbyterians in the same county, were settled, they did not have to wait very long before clergymen came and churches were built. But in the backwoods it was often many years before churches were established. There the settlers had to rely upon travelling preachers, called "Circuit Riders", who rode on horseback from one district to another and held their services in private homes, in taverns, in the schools, or in the open air. During the summer, "camp-meetings", attended by settlers for miles around, were held, with the people living in tents and the services held in the open air.

As soon as the settlers could afford to build a church, the social life of the community centred around it. Often the mail was distributed at the church door after the service.

LIFE IN THE TOWNS

In the towns and in the older settled areas near the towns, living conditions were of course very much better than in the backwoods. Government officials, officers of the army and navy, professional men, well-to-do merchants, and prosperous farmers were able to afford good brick, stone, or frame houses built by contractors. They could import furniture from England or from the United States or they could have it made by competent cabinet-makers.

They could enjoy white flour, tea, coffee, imported wines, fresh meat and fish, and many delicacies brought in by the merchants. Tailors and shoemakers were ready to serve them.

In the larger towns there were usually good private schools to which the citizens could send their children if they were willing to pay the necessary fees. At Dr. Baldwin's school in York, established in 1803, the annual fee was eight guineas ($42.00) and a cord of wood. Churches had been established.

All the larger centres had post offices, and several of them had newspapers. Travelling companies from the United States occasionally brought a show to Montreal or to Toronto. On special occasions the citizens gathered at the hotels for sumptuous banquets or for dances where, dressed in fashionable clothes, they danced stately quadrilles and minuets.

Mechanics' Institutes were established in the larger towns. These Institutes were supported by leaders in the community to provide the less well-educated with an opportunity to improve themselves. Each member paid a small fee and in return had the privilege of using the library and attending lectures.

The first library in Upper Canada was established at Niagara in 1800 and was supported by private subscriptions. Later, York, Cobourg, and Kingston had good public libraries. Agricultural and Horticultural Societies organized annual fairs and exhibitions which helped to improve the standards of farming.

In garrison towns such as Kingston, Niagara, Amherstburg, and York, horse-racing was a popular sport. Tracks were laid out in Niagara before 1800 and in York before the war of 1812-14. During the winter horse-races were held on the ice. In the country towns such as Perth and

Bytown, horse-races often led to drunken brawls and reckless gambling. People had little money to squander, but they might bet 10,000 feet of lumber or a barrel of flour or of pork.

Baseball, hockey, and golf were still unknown in Canada. In districts where Scots had settled, some curling rinks were established. Before long other people who could afford the time and money took up curling and sometimes members of a Toronto Club would play the Hamilton Club, even though it took three days to make the trip for a friendly game. Some of the boys and young men played lacrosse, a game they had learned from the Indians, and soccer and cricket were played at some of the schools and colleges. Few people played games, however, for the struggle to make a living took almost all their time and energy.

10. Rival Fur-Traders in the North West

> "Fresher rivalries
> Broke out — Nor'westers at the Hudson's throat
> Over the pelts, over the pemmican;
> No matter what — the dividends flowed in
> As rum flowed out like the Saskatchewan."
>
> E. J. Pratt: *Towards the Last Spike*

Last year we learned about the two great trading companies which were competing for furs in the North West. The Hudson's Bay Company was the older one, with rights given in its charter to control all the land drained by rivers flowing into Hudson Bay. The North West Company was formed when rival traders from Montreal decided to unite in 1783. These two companies engaged in a desperate race to build trading-posts throughout the west and in a struggle with no holds barred to obtain the furs from the Indians. As a by-product of this rivalry, the North West was explored.

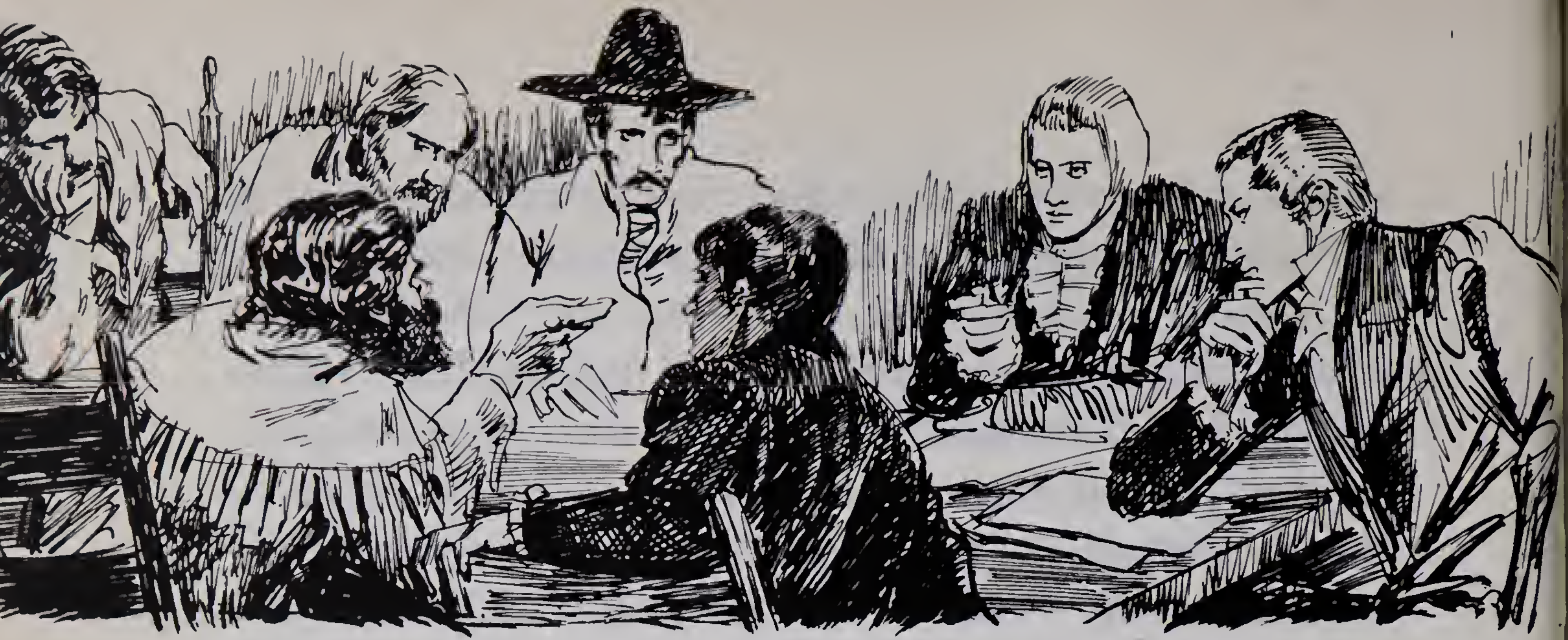
The Hudson's Bay Company had one great advantage: it could bring its goods to the trading-posts on the Bay by a comparatively inexpensive sea-voyage. The distance to the inland posts was short compared to the long route the Nor'westers had to take from Montreal through the Great Lakes and then by river and lake into the fur country. On the other hand, the Nor'westers were partners in their company, not employees, as the Hudson's Bay Company men were. The harder the Nor'westers worked, the greater the chance for profit and promotion. Certainly the Nor'westers were more aggressive in establishing new posts, and it was the Nor'westers — Alexander Mackenzie, Simon Fraser, and David Thompson — who explored the Mackenzie, the Fraser, and the Columbia rivers, and reached the Pacific Ocean by land and by river. Although the Nor'westers did not hesitate to build posts in the territory which belonged to the Hudson's Bay Company, they were especially interested in staking their claims in the areas over which the Hudson's Bay Company had no legal rights, such as the Athabaska and the Pacific Coast regions.

The Nor'westers who managed the sale and shipment of furs from Canada to the markets of the world and the purchase of trade goods for the Indians were known as the "Montreal partners". They usually made large fortunes and lived in comfort and luxury in Montreal. The men who were in charge of trading-posts in the west where they did the actual trading with the Indians were known as the "wintering partners". They had to endure the hardships of travel into difficult territory, the loneliness of life in the trading-post, and the risk of possible trouble with hostile Indians or rival traders. Some of the wintering partners made enough profit in a few years to enable them to retire in comfort. Strange to say, the fortunes made in the fur trade in the North West did not establish wealthy families like the Astors, who profited from their fur company in the American west. It was a saying of the time that wealth made in the Indian country would not flourish on foreign soil. With a few exceptions the second and third generations descended from these fur barons lost their money, and many of the former partners died in poverty.

GRAND PORTAGE

Every summer the wintering partners of the North West Company set out on their trip down to Grand Portage at the mouth of the Pigeon River to meet the Montreal partners at the annual meeting. Down from the Peace River country, down from Fort Chipewyan on Lake Athabaska, down from the Upper Saskatchewan, down from their posts on the Churchill, down from the Red River Valley they came, their canoes manned by hardy voyageurs who could paddle for eighteen hours a day. With them they brought the results of their season's trading, hundreds of bales of furs ready to be transferred to the larger canoes at Grand Portage.

Meanwhile the Montreal partners had been making their way up the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes to Grand Portage. While the voyageurs transported the furs down the nine miles of the long portage past the falls on the Pigeon River and carried back the trade goods and supplies that were to go to the northern posts, the partners met in the Great Hall and decided upon their plans for the next year.



Every year the Montreal partners and the wintering partners met at Grand Portage. There they discussed the problems of the fur trade: the best goods for the posts, the location of new trading-posts, the retirement of wintering partners, and new assignments for the men in the North and the West.

FORT WILLIAM

In their meeting of 1796 the partners had a difficult problem. The boundary west of Lake Superior between the British possessions and the United States had at last been settled: Pigeon River was the new boundary. This was a serious matter, for Grand Portage was on the south bank of the Pigeon River. The partners decided to move to the mouth of the Kaministikwia River, and there they built new and better western headquarters which they named Fort William after William McGillivray who presided at the first meeting in the new depot.

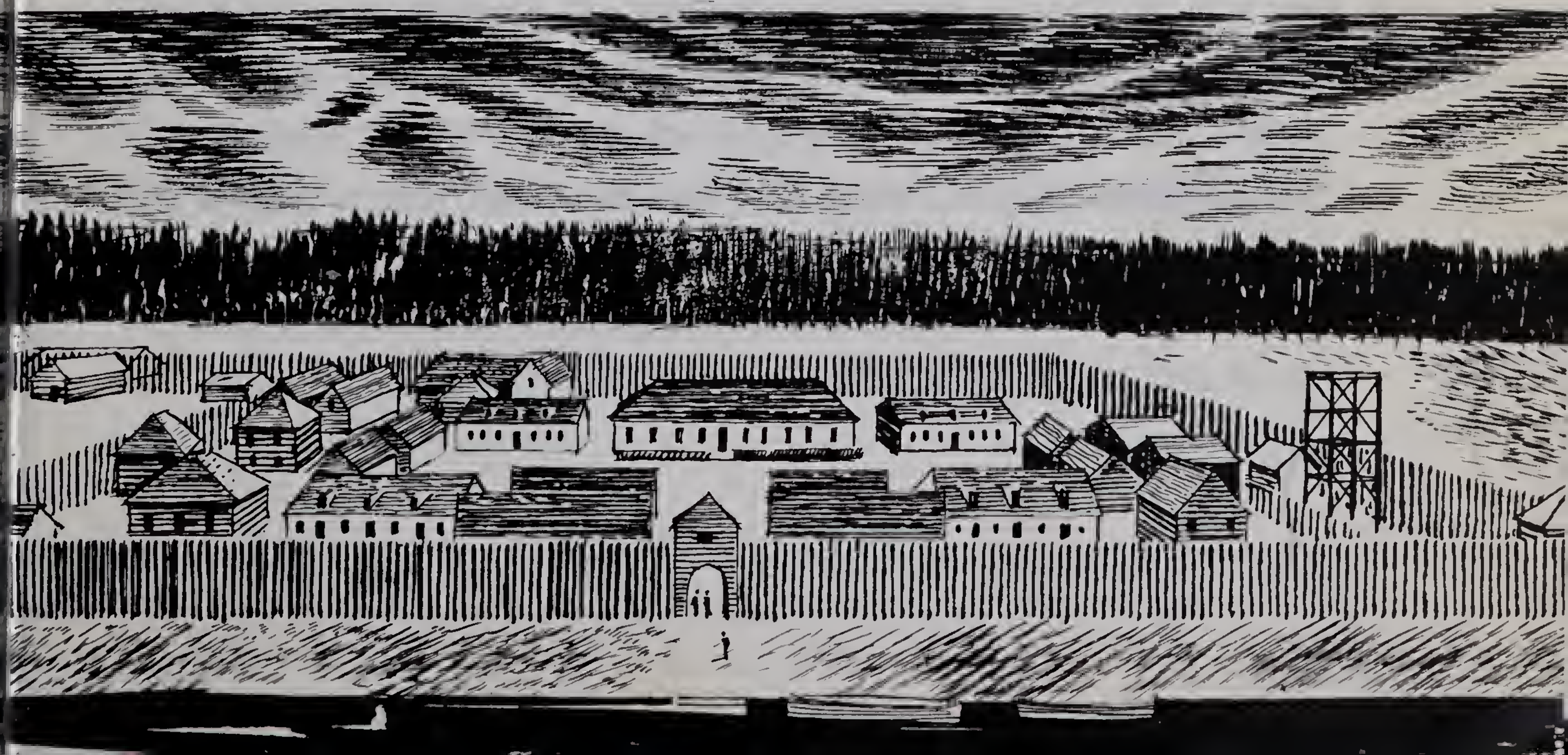
Grand Portage was an imposing stockade with a large main hall and several log buildings within its walls, but Fort William surpassed Grand Portage. More than a thousand men worked on it and it cost over £50,000 to build. The palisade was fifteen feet high, and within it was a main building even larger than the one at Grand Portage. The great hall, sixty feet by thirty, was in the centre of the building. Huge candelabras held hundreds of candles. Fine paintings were hung on the walls. On one side of the great hall were the rooms for the partners, and on the other a row of rooms for the stewards. Kitchens and servants' rooms were in the basement. Beside and behind the main building were carpenter shops, a counting-house, warehouses for the furs, a jail for unruly voyageurs, buildings for blacksmiths and tinsmiths, a house for the doctor, and houses for the clerks and interpreters, all built of peeled logs stained brown.

All this was for a few weeks in the summer, while the wintering partners and the Montreal partners met and the voyageurs brought the furs down the portage and took the trade goods up above the Kakabeka Falls. The rest of the year Fort William was quiet, with only a few men there to take care of the great establishment.

RIVALRY THREATENS TO RUIN THE TRADE

No questions were asked about what means the wintering partners had taken to obtain their furs. In an age when half of the African slave trade was carried on by the British, when children eight or ten years old had to work in mines or factories, when young men were drugged and carried off by press-gangs to serve in the British navy, it is not surprising that there was little concern about the welfare of the Indians. The trading companies could not do what the Spaniards had done in parts of South America;

The Nor'wester establishment at Fort William. When the Montreal and the wintering partners met there during July the great event was the ball when everyone danced until morning to the strains of the fiddle or the bagpipes.



they could not slaughter the natives and take the wealth of the country, because they had to depend on the Indians to hunt for the furs. Since most of the traders, however, were concerned with quick profits they gave little thought as to whether the fur trade was going to ruin itself by destroying too many fur-bearing animals in a district or by demoralizing the Indians or arousing their antagonism to the traders. If the Indians wanted to trade their furs for rum and whisky and if Indian families starved during the next winter as a result, whose business was it? At least they were free.

The Hudson's Bay traders were not partners but employees of a company which had paid dividends to its shareholders for many years and hoped to continue to pay them. Consequently, they were neither as aggressive as the Nor'westers nor so reckless about their relations with the Indians.

In the early days of competition the traders of the rival companies were friendly enough when they met. During the winter, the men at neighbouring posts visited each other, and traders of one company sometimes carried letters to rival traders whose posts they would pass. One Hudson's Bay man, John McKay, wrote in his report, Christmas Day, 1799, "I had the honour of my Neighbours' (from the North West Company) company to dinner; Your Honours have the honour of bearing the expenses." As late as 1807 Daniel Harmon wrote, "The greater part of the North West and Hudson's Bay people live on amicable terms; and when one can with propriety render a service to the other, it is done with cheerfulness." This occasional friendliness did not stop the traders from sharp competition when it came to trading with the Indians. When the two companies had posts close together, the rivalry sometimes led to open fighting.

It was when the Hudson's Bay Company gave Lord Selkirk a grant of land in the Red River Valley for settlement that serious trouble broke out between the two companies. Wiser men of both companies saw that the best solution would be to unite. In 1821 the Hudson's Bay Company and the North West Company united under the name Hudson's Bay Company, but before that took place blood was shed on the banks of the Red River and bitter struggles took place in the law courts.

11. The Red River Settlement

> "From the lone shieling of the misty island
> Mountains divide us, and the waste of seas —
> Yet still the blood is strong, the heart in Highland,
> And we in dreams behold the Hebrides."
>
> JOHN GALT: *Canadian Boat Song*

LORD SELKIRK PLANS A SETTLEMENT IN THE RED RIVER VALLEY

Early in the nineteenth century many an unhappy family in the Highlands of Scotland was being driven off its little farm in order that the landlords might make more money by raising sheep. Thomas Douglas, Earl of Selkirk, wanted to help these people and he came to the conclusion that the wisest plan was to encourage them to emigrate to British possessions beyond the seas. He had brought eight hundred Scots to Prince Edward Island and established them there. A colony established near Chatham in southern Ontario was less successful, but it did not shake Selkirk's conviction that settlement in the colonies was the best solution of the difficulties in Scotland.

One day Lord Selkirk read in Alexander Mackenzie's *Voyages*:

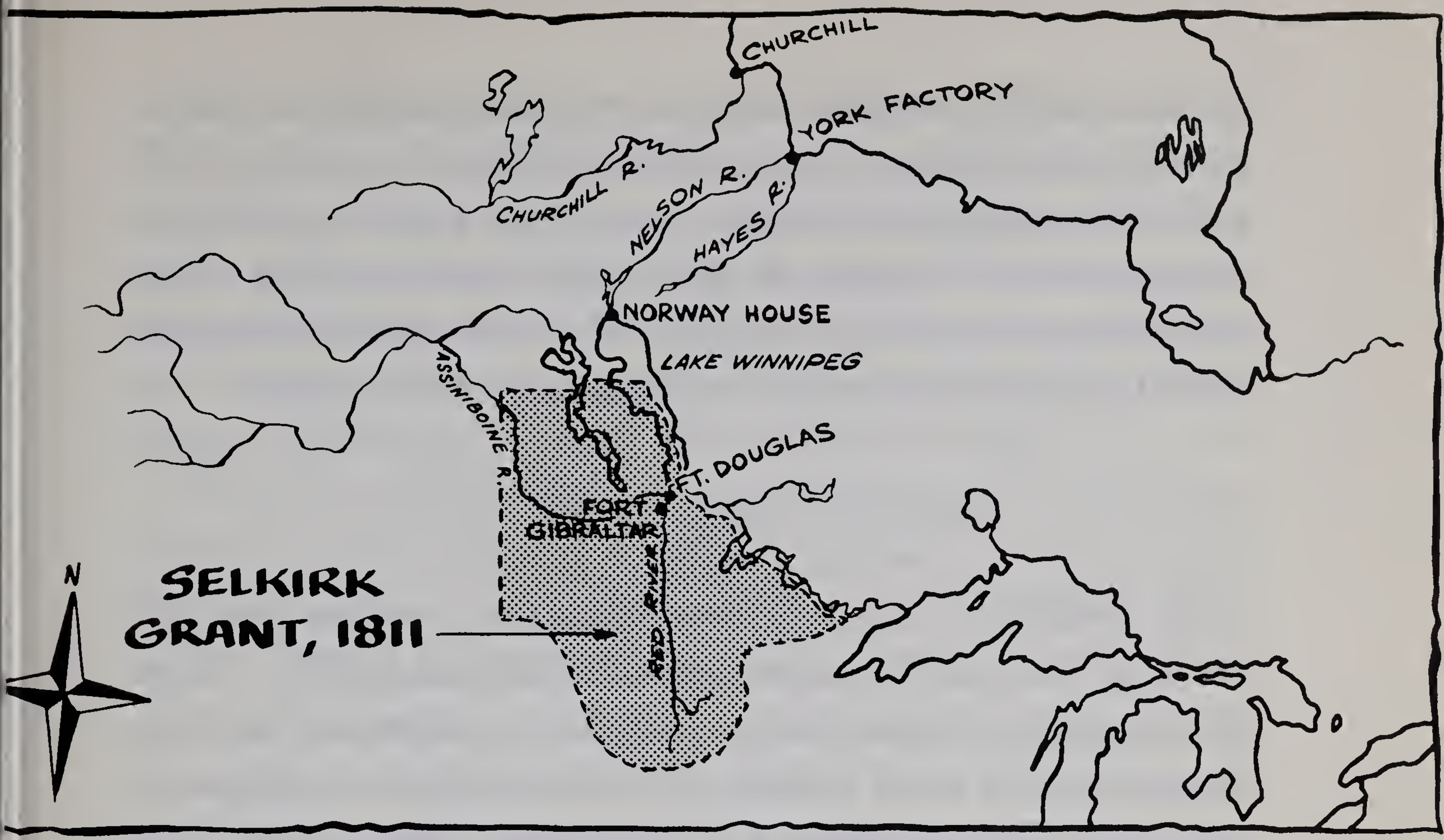
> "The country on either side of the Red River consists of plains covered with herds of buffalo and elk, especially on the Western side. On the Eastern side are lakes and rivers, and the whole country is well-wooded, level, abounding in beavers, bears, moose-deer, fallow-deer, etc. The natives are not very numerous. There is not perhaps a finer country in the world for the residence of uncivilized man. It abounds in everything necessary to the wants and comforts of such a people. Fish, venison, and fowl, with wild rice, are in great plenty."

No doubt Lord Selkirk thought that if this country was ideal for uncivilized man it should be good for civilized man, too. He began to make plans to establish a settlement there.

Selkirk's plan must have seemed to many people wild and fantastic. The Red River Valley was hundreds of miles from any market. The journey was long and difficult, either by way of Hudson Bay or by way of Montreal. Neither the fur-traders nor the Indians were likely to welcome settlers. But Selkirk was a man who saw visions and dreamed dreams. He let no difficulties stop him.

THE FUR-TRADERS DO NOT APPROVE

When farmers come the fur-bearing animals disappear. Both the Hudson's Bay Company and the North West Company were opposed to settlement in the West. Selkirk's great wealth enabled him to overcome the opposition of the Hudson's Bay Company. He bought shares in the Company, and in 1811 persuaded the governors to grant him one hundred and sixteen thousand square miles of land in what is now the province of Manitoba and the states of North Dakota and Minnesota. This transaction


CHURCHILL
YORK FACTORY
CHURCHILL R.
NELSON R.
HAYES R.
NORWAY HOUSE
LAKE WINNIPEG
ASSINIBOINE R.
FT. DOUGLAS
FORT GIBRALTAR
RED RIVER
N
SELKIRK GRANT, 1811

made him the largest landowner in Christendom. Although the Hudson's Bay traders in Rupertsland did not want settlers they could not oppose Selkirk's plan openly because the governors in London had agreed to it.

The Nor'westers declared that the settlement was a trick on the part of Lord Selkirk and the Hudson's Bay Company to ruin their fur trade. They would have disliked the idea of a settlement anywhere in the fur-trading country, but they had special reasons for objecting to the settlement in the Red River Valley. The spot where the Assiniboine River flows into the Red was the cross-road of their highways; the farmers were going to settle right across the route by which all their transportation moved. The Nor'westers had several important trading-posts in that district. From their posts near Red River they shipped food supplies to their traders at the northern posts. The chief article of food was pemmican which the Indians made from dried buffalo meat, and the traders of both companies were afraid that if settlers came into the Red River district the buffalo would disappear and the Indians would move away.

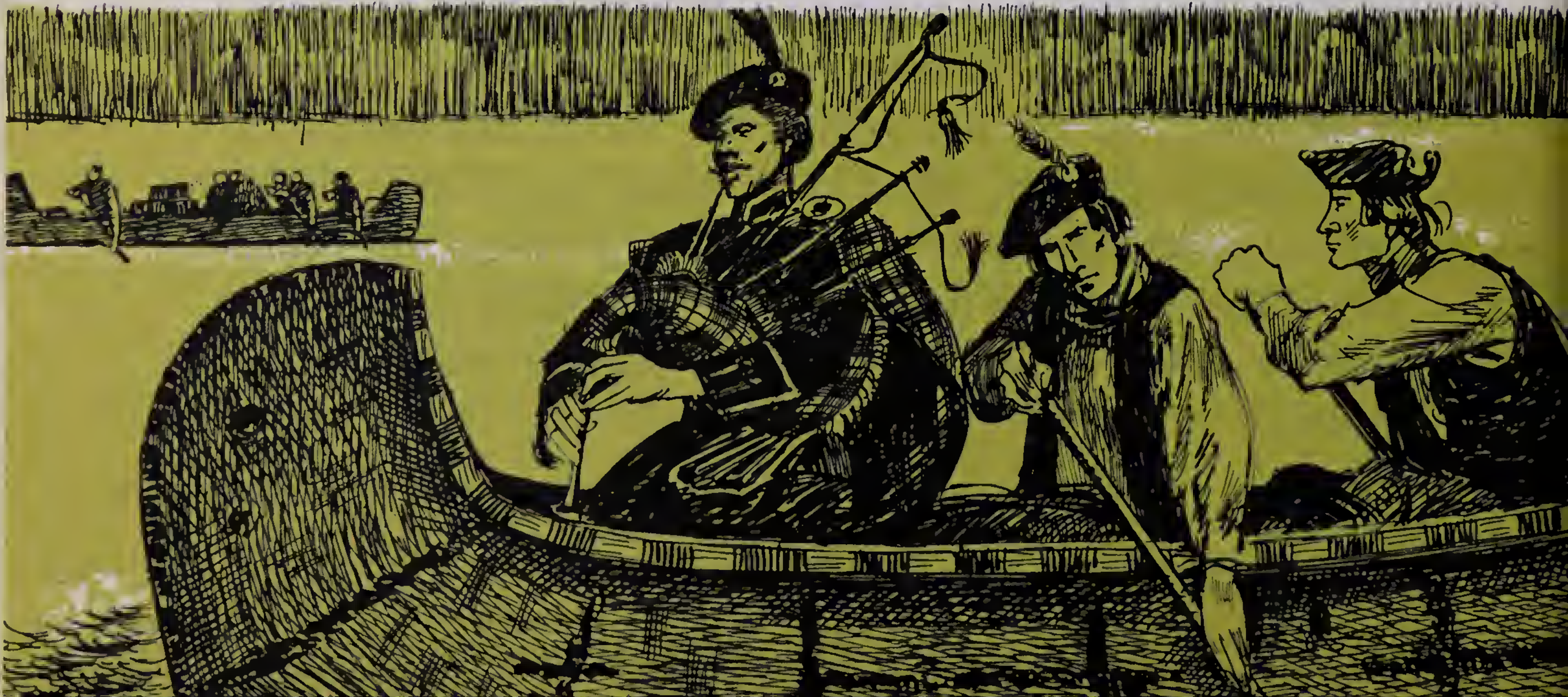
Lord Selkirk realized some of the hardships his settlers would have to face, but he did not foresee that the Hudson's Bay Company officials on the Bay and at Red River would give his colonists as little support as they did. Nor did Selkirk foresee the lengths to which the Nor'westers would go to prevent the establishment of the colony.

SETTLERS COME TO RED RIVER

Lord Selkirk's settlers, fewer than four hundred in all, came in four small groups between 1811 and 1815. These people had endured dire poverty and misfortune in Scotland, but now Lord Selkirk was offering them an opportunity to make new homes in America. They knew little about the country to which they were coming, though they had heard tales about the Indians and about the freezing cold of the winters.

The journey across the Atlantic and into Hudson Bay was long and uncomfortable. Before the settlers landed, their food supplies were almost gone and the water was stale. When at last they landed on the shores of Hudson Bay, it was too late to start for Red River. Some were landed at York Factory on Hudson Bay, and some at Churchill.

The third party of Selkirk settlers that arrived at Red River in 1814 was left at Churchill. In the spring they had to walk over a hundred miles to York Factory and then continue on the Hayes River and Lake Winnipeg.



The Company men on the Bay did very little to help the settlers. The first parties had to build their own shelters and then their own boats for the journey to Red River in the spring. They had to depend on hunting for their food since the traders were not willing to give them any. The long severe winter on Hudson Bay was not a happy beginning for their life in the new land.

As soon as the ice broke on the rivers, the newcomers started on the long and difficult journey — over seven hundred miles — up the Hayes River, across to Lake Winnipeg and up the Red River to the junction of the Red and the Assiniboine. It was seldom that the trip could be made in less than two months. They did not reach Red River until August, too late to plant crops. Because they still depended on hunting for food they had to follow the buffalo south. Fortunately, the Indians were kind and provided them with fish and pemmican.

Miles Macdonell, who had been sent out as governor of the little colony, ordered that no provisions were to be taken out of the settlement during 1814. This order, if carried out, would have ruined the North West Company's trade for the year. To the fur-traders, a supply of food meant a supply of pemmican. It was the ideal food for a long journey. To make it, buffalo meat was cut into thin strips, dried, and beaten into flakes, then packed into bags made of buffalo skin. Melted fat and marrow was poured over it until the whole was a solid mass, and dried fruit was sometimes added. Usually it was put up in bags of ninety pounds for journeys.

Macdonell's action almost ruined the colony. Now the Nor'westers became determined to destroy the settlement. First they offered grants of land in Upper Canada and free passage in their canoes to any settlers who would agree to go. Many accepted the offer, but thirteen families refused. Against them a campaign of fear and terror was started. Fort Douglas, the headquarters of the settlement, the mill, stables, barns, and houses were burned to the ground. The "Loyalists of Red River" — about fifty persons — in fear for their lives had to make their way down Lake Winnipeg and establish winter quarters on Jack River. The Nor'westers were jubilant, but they rejoiced too soon. In the autumn of 1815, the Hudson's Bay Company sent Governor Semple out to Red River with another party of settlers. The little band of thirteen families which had fled to Jack River returned and the settlement was established once more. Fort Douglas was re-built, and Fort Gibraltar, belonging to the North West Company, was destroyed by Semple's command.

THE MASSACRE AT SEVEN OAKS

Semple, knowing that the Nor'westers hated the colony, suspected that they might make further efforts to destroy it. One day in June, 1816, the look-out in the watch-tower of Fort Douglas saw a party of fifty Métis riding across the prairie. At once Semple led a party of thirty settlers to meet them. Who fired the first shot? Nobody knows. But the first shot was the signal for massacre. Semple and twenty of his party were killed at a spot later called Seven Oaks. Again the heart-broken settlers hurried for refuge to Jack River.

LORD SELKIRK VISITS HIS COLONY

News travelled slowly in those days. Lord Selkirk had promised to visit his settlers at Red River. He had heard of the hardships they had endured, and the disastrous result of Miles Macdonell's pemmican proclamation. He was on his way to pay the promised visit, bringing with him a number of disbanded soldiers to protect his settlement, when he learned about the massacre at Seven Oaks. He acted promptly. He made straight for Fort William, the headquarters of the North West Company on Lake Superior. There he took possession of the fort and held captive all the Nor'westers found in it. In doing this he exceeded his authority and as a result became involved in a lawsuit.

When Selkirk arrived at the colony on the Red River in the summer of 1817 he found that Miles Macdonell had persuaded the settlers to return a second time from Jack River. They were building their homes once again. For four months Selkirk worked to help them. He granted them free land, advised them where roads, bridges, and mills should be placed, and gave sites for churches and schools.

Lord Selkirk got along well with the Indians. He made a treaty with Chief Peguis which was the first treaty with the Indians west of the Great Lakes. Because of the rich gifts Lord Selkirk gave them the Indians called him the Silver Chief.

THE UNION OF THE RIVAL COMPANIES BRINGS PEACE TO RED RIVER

When Lord Selkirk returned to Montreal, he found himself being sued by the North West Company for conspiring to ruin the fur trade. The fur-traders were very powerful in Eastern Canada, and Selkirk was ordered to pay heavy damages. He appealed to the Prime Minister of Great Britain, asking for an inquiry before the Privy Council. But Selkirk was ill, and before an inquiry could be held the Silver Chief was dead.

Selkirk had spent more than half a million dollars on his colony and it must often have seemed to him that the results were disappointing, yet he never lost faith in the future of the prairies which he predicted some day "might afford ample means of subsistence to more than thirty million British subjects". Selkirk did not live to know that the settlers he sent to Red River would be followed by thousands more who would farm the fertile lands. We know to-day that he was right when he said that these western plains could be the granary of the British Empire.

Even before Lord Selkirk died, steps were being taken to unite the Hudson's Bay Company and the North West Company. The troubles over the colony had cost the Hudson's Bay Company a great deal of money and it had to consider the dividends to its shareholders. No doubt Selkirk would have opposed the union for he naturally had bitter feelings towards the Nor'westers. In 1821 the two companies were united under the name of the Hudson's Bay Company.

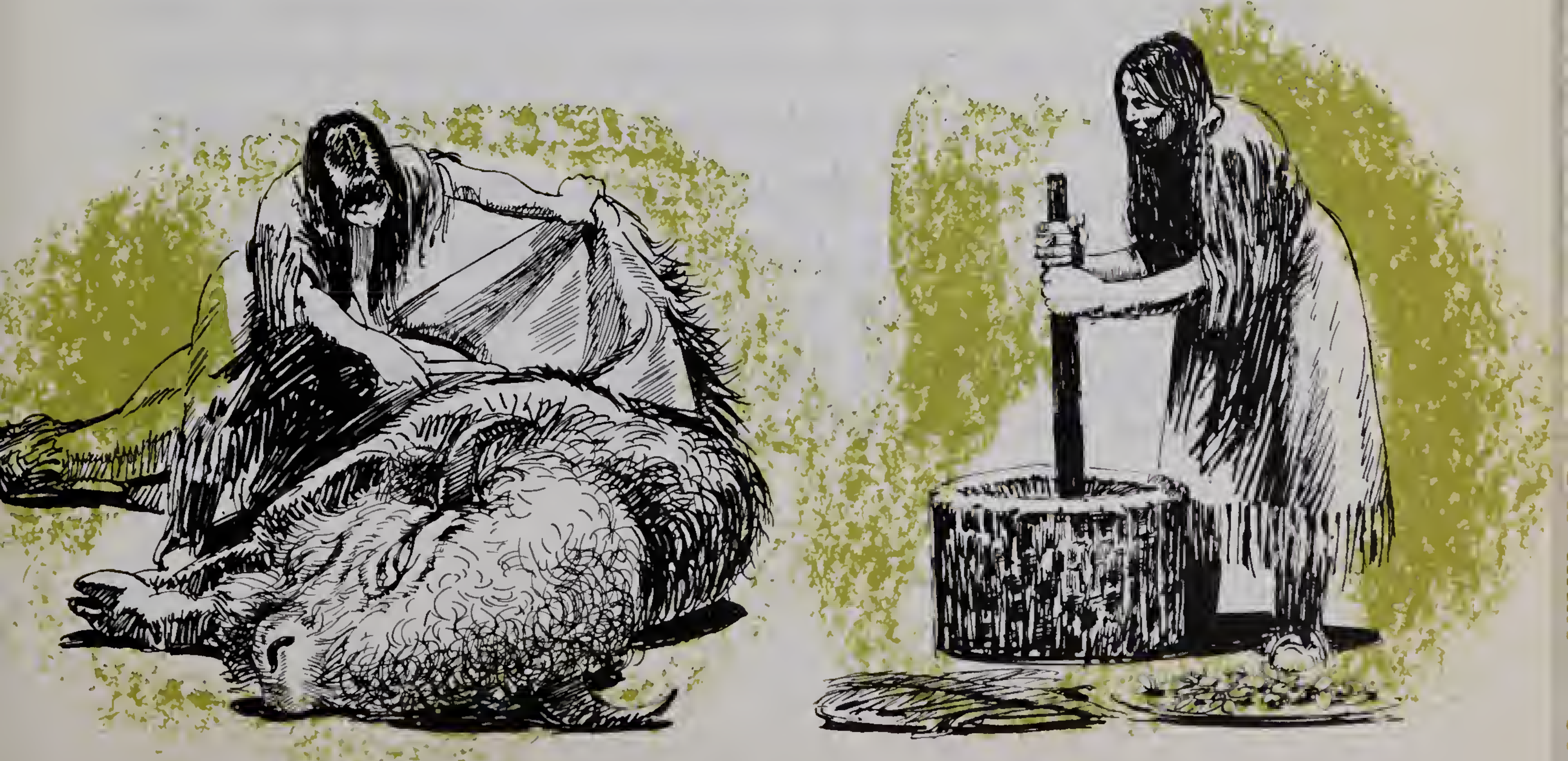
WHAT HAPPENED TO SELKIRK'S COLONY?

The district of Assiniboia belonged to the Selkirk estate for some years after Lord Selkirk died and the colony remained independent of the Hudson's Bay Company. The experiment in settlement in the Red River Valley was an unfortunate investment for the Selkirk family. Large sums of money were spent trying to improve agriculture and establish industries. The Buffalo Wool Company was formed to export the wool of the buffalo but it proved too expensive to compete with wool from Highland sheep. Misfortunes fell upon the colony: grasshoppers destroyed the crops; a flood in 1826 swept away the homes and possessions of the settlers. Many of the colonists gave up the struggle and moved to Upper Canada or the United States. Only the most steadfast remained to find their faith in the country justified when a succession of good crops followed the flood.

Before long the Hudson's Bay Company wanted to have the colony under its control, so in 1834 it bought Assiniboia from the Selkirk family. For years fur-traders and farmers, buffalo hunters and voyageurs lived side by side in the isolated little settlement. Every summer the Métis set out with their creaking Red River carts for the spring buffalo hunt. Usually the hunters and their families gathered in the Pembina valley and there elected a captain of the hunt. From that day till the end of the hunt the captain's word was law. When the buffalo came in sight, the hunters rode out in a single line and at a signal from the captain charged towards the herd. Firing and refiring as they rode, dropping a glove or a scarf to identify their spoils, they pressed on after the stampeding buffalo until they and their horses wearied of the chase.

After the hunters returned to camp, the women went out with the carts. They skinned the carcasses, cut off what meat they wanted — the tongue, the soft hump, and other choice bits — and loaded skins and meat into the carts. Next day they cut the meat into strips, hung it in

The women skinned the buffaloes killed by the Indian braves. Most of the meat was made into pemmican, the staple food for hunters and travellers.



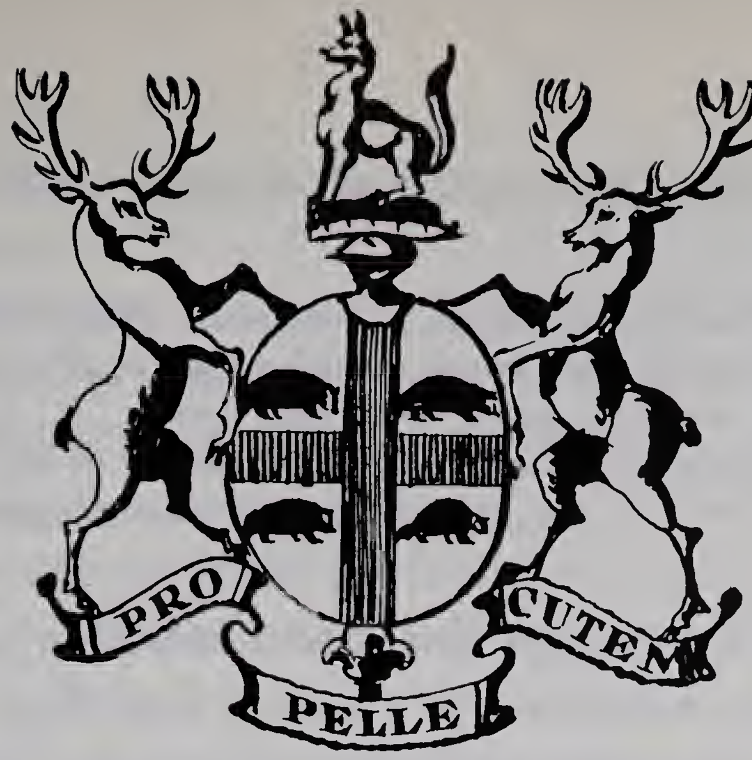
the sun to dry, then pounded the dried meat to make pemmican which they could sell at the trading-post. The fall hunt was for fresh meat and for skins.

The Company tried to prevent anyone from competing with it in the fur trade but smuggling across the American border was common. When a Métis, Guillaume Sayer, was brought into court in 1849 charged with trading with the Indians, his friends, their guns in their hands, stood outside the court-house to hear the outcome. Though the verdict was "Guilty" with a recommendation for mercy, one of the crowd shouted "Le Commerce est libre", and they all took up the cry. From that day on the Company did not attempt to enforce its monopoly.

WHAT HAPPENED TO THE HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY?

Nor'westers and Hudson's Bay men, long rivals, learned to work together for the new company. The British flag, with H.B.C. on its folds, waved over all the trading-posts in the North West. The first governor of the Northern Department was George Simpson, later Sir George. By 1826 Simpson was governor-in-chief of the Hudson's Bay Company's territories, and for nearly forty years he was in command of the Company in America. His first task was to make the former rivals work together peaceably, his second, to operate the fur trade economically and profitably. Because he ruled over the Company men and the settlers with an iron hand and because he was a small man, he was nicknamed "The Little Emperor". Under his command the Company prospered.

The Hudson's Bay Company continued to rule the western country (and to pay good dividends) until in 1869 it surrendered to the Dominion of Canada its rights to control the trade and to govern its vast territory. In



The coat of arms of the Hudson's Bay Company.

return the Company received $1,500,000, and kept the land around its forts and one-twentieth of the fertile belt between the American border and the North Saskatchewan. Many people, both within and outside the Company, thought that the day of the Hudson's Bay Company was over when it gave up its privileges. For a time, it seemed as though they might be right, but, as settlers began to pour into Western Canada around 1900, there was plenty of profit to be made from the sale of land. As towns and cities developed, Hudson's Bay trading-posts became general stores and to-day the Company owns several large department stores in Western Canada and one in Montreal. Even after the buffalo vanished from the prairie and pemmican was no longer made, after the Indians of the Saskatchewan Valley found few furs to bring to the trading-posts, there was still a thriving fur trade. The fur-traders simply moved farther north. Many of the old posts were deserted and fell into ruins but new ones were built in the far north and along the shores of the Arctic. To these posts in the north trappers and hunters, white, Eskimo, and Indian, still bring their furs and the Hudson's Bay Company men pay them in trade goods or in cash.

12. The Beginning of the Age of Steam

> "Soon shall thy arm, unconquer'd steam! afar
> Drag the slow barge, or drive the rapid car;
> Or on wide wings expanded bear
> The flying chariot through the fields of air."
>
> ERASMUS DARWIN: *The Botanic Garden*

There can be no doubt that the outstanding cause of the changes that took place in working, travelling, and living conditions in the nineteenth century was the steam engine. The twentieth century is the age of the gasoline engine, the diesel, the jet, and the changes they have made in transportation have been tremendous. But it was the steam engine which ushered in our modern age of mass production and rapid transportation.

THE FIRST STEAM ENGINES

Men had been experimenting with steam for many years before they found a practical, economical way to use it. In 1705 Thomas Newcomen in England built the first effective steam engine. James Watt of Scotland won fame and fortune by improving it and manufacturing steam engines in Birmingham, England. By the end of the eighteenth century the Industrial Revolution was well under way in England. In the new textile mills, the machines were able to turn out great quantities of woollen, cotton, and linen cloth. As we have seen, this change put out of work many people who had formerly earned a living by spinning or weaving in their own homes or in small factories. Many of them came to America to try their fortunes in the new land, and thus the invention of the steam engine had an important effect upon the growth of Canada and the United States. It was when steam was applied to transportation, however, that it revolutionized life in America.

Enterprising men in both the British Isles and in America began to wonder whether, since the steam engine could turn the wheels of machinery in the mills, it could be made to move boats through water and to pull wagons on land. They did not know yet *how* this would be done but they believed it could be done. They began to experiment.

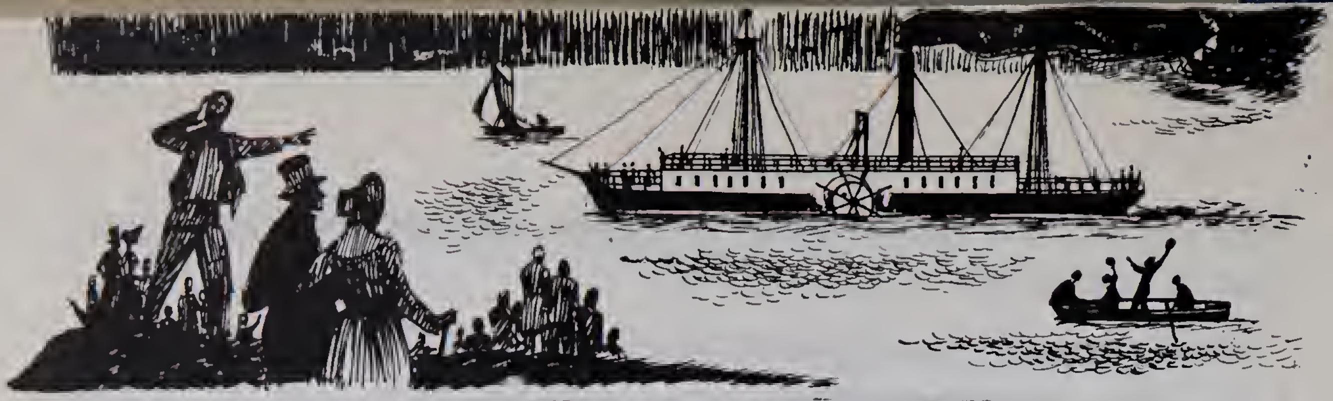
AN INTERESTING PROPHECY

Erasmus Darwin's poem *The Botanic Garden,* which is quoted at the beginning of this chapter, was published in 1791. Ten years later the first successful steamboat, the *Charlotte Dundas,* began to "drag the slow barge" along the Clyde Canal in Scotland. Darwin did not prophesy that a steam locomotive would pull a train of cars but he would not have been surprised when that happened in 1829. His prediction that steam would "drive the rapid car" came true, for cars propelled by steam were built during the nineteenth century. These early steam automobiles frightened the people so much that they were forbidden by law to travel on the highways of England. The most famous steam-propelled cars were the Stanley Steamers first built in 1897 in the United States. They were used for some time in America but before long gasoline engines proved more popular in motor-cars.

To-day it is not steam but gasoline that propels most of the engines that

> "on wide waving wings expanded bear
> The flying chariot through the fields of air."

Here again, however, Darwin foretold what actually took place. The first heavier-than-air flying machine to make a successful flight was driven by a 1½ horse-power



The *Clermont*, the first steamboat in America, steams up the Hudson at an average speed of five miles an hour. Crowds on the river-bank marvel at the ship that "walks on the water" without oars or sails.

steam engine. It was built in 1896 by Samuel Langley of Washington, D.C. Though it stayed in the air only 109 seconds and travelled only 4,300 feet, enterprising men became certain that some day a flying machine could be built which would stay up longer and fly farther.

STEAMBOATS IN AMERICA

The first successful steamboat in America was the *Clermont,* built by Robert Fulton in 1807, which made its first trip from New York to Albany and back in 62 hours. As always happens with any invention which changes the life of the people, there were many who thought steamboats would not come into general use, that they would be too expensive to operate compared with sailing vessels which had free power in the wind, that they could not carry enough fuel for an ocean crossing, that they were dirty (which, of course, they were because of the sparks and smoke), and dangerous. Some of the men who owned sailing vessels were certain that steamboats were just a passing fad and would never take the place of sailing ships. Others realized that steam was a threat to sail and tried to wreck the *Clermont.*

STEAMBOATS ON THE MISSISSIPPI

It was obvious that steamboats were the answer to the transportation problems of the Mississippi Valley, where most of the freight had been taken down the river on flatboats which could not be taken back up again. In 1811 a steamboat which had been built at Pittsburgh appeared on the Mississippi. Imagine the excitement of the people who first saw a steamboat coming round a bend in the river!

Soon hundreds of steamboats, large and small, built light because of the shallow channels they had to navigate, made their way down to New Orleans and back. Now the boats which took produce down the river could bring manufactured goods from the factories of the Atlantic states up the Mississippi and the Ohio rivers to the settlers in the West. Ploughs and spades, guns and ammunition, factory-made cottons and woollens, even bonnets and shawls for the women, helped to make up the cargoes that filled the boats for the trip up-river.

Before long show-boats began to appear in the settlements. They were gaily decorated and usually advertised their approach by lively tunes on the calliope, a steam piano which could be heard a long way off. The actors lived on the show-boat and when it tied up at a settlement or at a plantation, the crew set up the stage, and the actors put on their costumes and make-up. The coming of the show-boat was a great event in the community and everyone who could afford the price of admission hurried out to see the show. The audiences shuddered with anxiety when the wicked villain seized the beautiful heroine and they clapped with delight when the handsome hero rescued her just in the nick of time. They wept bitterly when the kind husband and father lay dying and his unhappy wife moaned that now she and her children would starve. But they did not need to worry for the plays always had a happy ending.

When steamboats were invented, Canadians were not slow to see the possibilities of steam navigation. In 1809 John Molson of Montreal launched the *Accommodation,* a sturdy ship eighty-five feet long and sixteen feet in the beam, with a six-horse-power engine. The *Accommodation* could travel five knots, or nearly six miles an hour. On her first trip to Quebec, only ten bold travellers ventured to take passage, though there was space for twenty passengers. The fare was eight dollars down to Quebec and ten dollars back.

The *Quebec Chronicle* of November 9, 1809, reported:

> "The Steam Boat, which was built in Montreal last winter, arrived here on Saturday last . . . . She was 66 hours on the passage, of which she was at anchor 30. So that 36 hours is the time which, in her present state, she takes to come down from Montreal to Quebec (over 160 miles). On Sunday last she went up against wind and tide . . . but her progress was very slow. It is obvious that her machinery, at present, has not sufficient force for this River."

When Molson realized that ox-teams would have to be used to tow the *Accommodation* up St. Mary's current below Montreal, he ordered a thirty-horse-power engine for his second boat, the *Swiftsure.* Against a strong head wind, the *Swiftsure* made the trip from Montreal to Quebec in twenty-four and a half hours. The *Quebec Chronicle* declared:

> "She is most superbly fitted up, and offers accommodation for passengers in every respect equal to the best hotel in Canada. In short, for celerity and security, she well deserves the name of *Swiftsure.*"

The Governor-General was not afraid to trust himself to the *Swiftsure* and when it returned to Montreal he was on board. By 1818 John Molson's St. Lawrence Steamboat Company had eight steamers on the river.

It was soon accepted that steamboats could be used on rivers or along the coast where the land was never very far away but most people thought it was quite a different matter to trust a steamboat to carry them safely across the ocean. Some ocean-going ships were built with both sails and steam, so that they could sail when the wind was favourable and use the steam engine when the wind was against them.

The *Royal William,* built in the Quebec shipyards, was financed by a company of Quebec and Halifax merchants when the Canadian Government offered a subsidy of $12,000 to the owners of any steamer over five hundred tons that would ply between Quebec and Halifax.

The day of the launching of the *Royal William* was an occasion for great celebration in Quebec. The mayor declared a public holiday; Lady Aylmer, the wife of the Governor-General, broke a bottle of wine against the bow, and said "God Bless the *Royal William* and all who sail in her!" The military band played, the Royal Artillery fired a salute, and all the people cheered. Unfortunately, the *Royal William* did not make money and the owners decided to send her to England to be sold.

In 1833 the little Canadian *Royal William* set out from Pictou, Nova Scotia, with three hundred tons of coal and made her way across the Atlantic entirely by steam power, arriving in London in thirty-three days. Some people claim that the American ship, the *Savannah,* which crossed the Atlantic in 1819, was the first steamboat to make the voyage, but its records show that it used its sails most of the way. So the honour of being the first steamboat to cross the Atlantic belongs to the Canadian *Royal William.*

Samuel Cunard, who with his two brothers had held shares in the *Royal William,* decided that there was a future for steamships on the Atlantic. He organized the North American Royal Mail Steam Packet Company which began the first regular steamship service across the Atlantic. To-day this company is known as the Cunard Steamship Company.

Cunard obtained a contract for carrying the mail from Britain, and his first ship, the *Britannia,* completed the voyage from Liverpool to Halifax and down to Boston in fourteen days. Before this time the mail had been brought in sailing vessels which often took about twenty-five days to come from Liverpool to Halifax and another fifteen to reach Quebec. Britain could be at war over a month before Canadians even heard about it.

To-day the Cunard Company has a large fleet of luxury ships carrying passengers from Britain to America. All but two of its liners have names ending in "ia". The two exceptions are the *Queen Mary* and the *Queen Elizabeth,* which sail from England to New York and are (1961) the largest passenger ships ever built.

Another line of transatlantic steamships was established by Hugh Allan, a young Scotsman who had settled in Montreal. The Allan line was the first to use screw-steamers, instead of paddle wheelers, on the Atlantic run, the first to build an Atlantic liner wholly of steel, and the first to use turbine engines. It continued to operate a steamship service across the Atlantic until it became part of the Canadian Pacific Ocean Services during World War I.

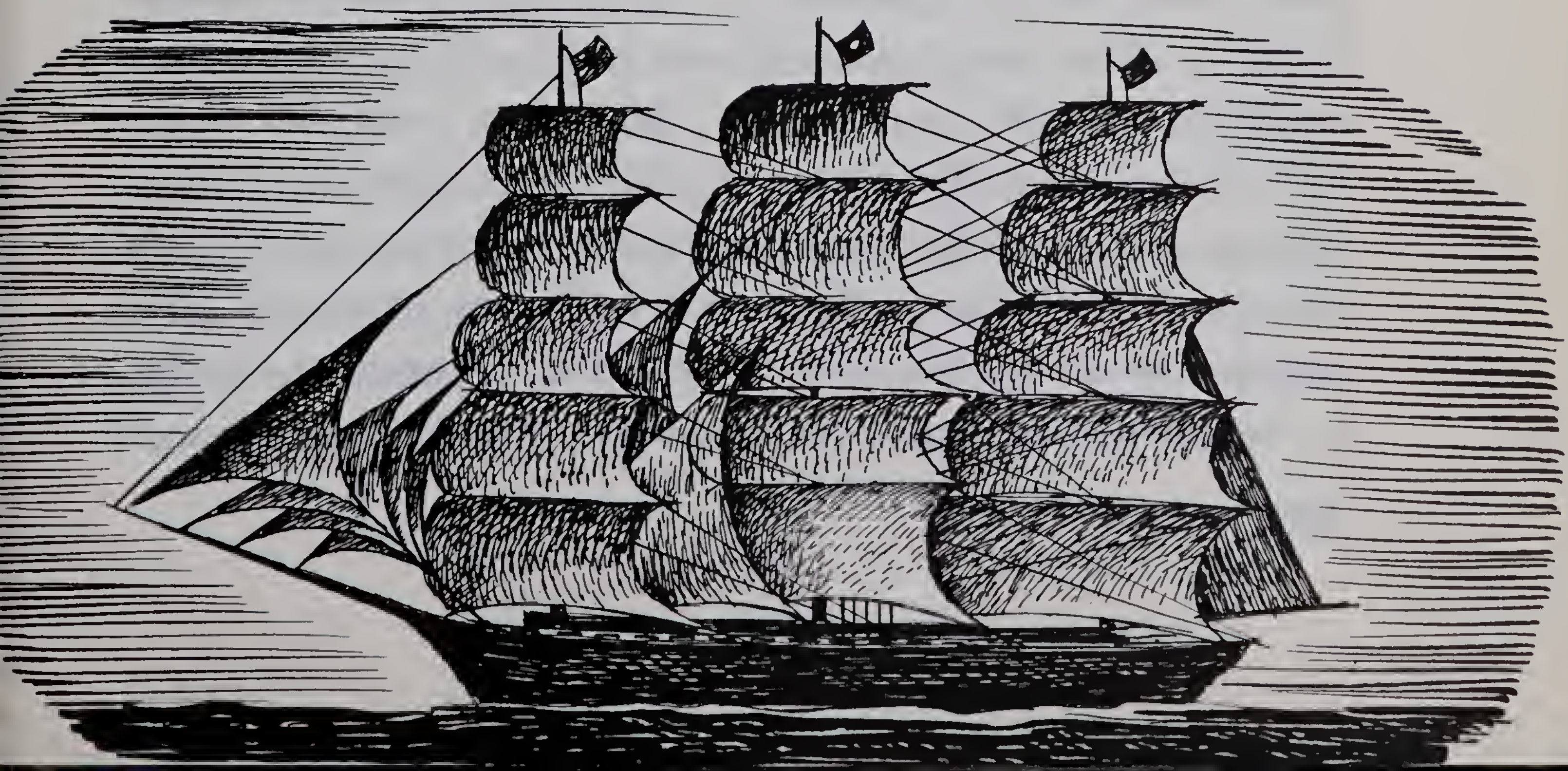
SHIPBUILDING IN BRITISH NORTH AMERICA

Although steamships were faster and usually more dependable than sailing vessels, they were more expensive to build and to operate. Sailing ships from Nova Scotia and New Brunswick continued, until well after the middle of the century, to carry cargoes, chiefly lumber and fish, to Britain and to the West Indies. From Britain they brought back immigrants and cargoes of manufactured goods, and from the West Indies they brought sugar and rum.

The forests of New Brunswick and the Ottawa Valley supplied timber for the British navy, sugar box shooks for the West Indies, and every kind of lumber wherever a market could be found, and all this provided cargoes for ships built in the colonies. Everywhere along the ragged coast of British North America from Quebec to Yarmouth and St. Andrews, the hammers and saws of the shipbuilders resounded in the harbours. By 1850 Canada and the Maritime Provinces stood fourth in the world in total tonnage of registered shipping. Many ships from Quebec or from the Maritimes found ready buyers in Britain or in Europe.

The Maritime Provinces gave birth to a fleet of sailing ships and a race of sailors, ships and crews alike nicknamed "Bluenoses", that became famous the world over. Shipbuilding remained an important industry in the British North American Provinces well past the middle of the century, until steamships with iron hulls spelled the doom of the wooden sailing vessels.

Often a "Bluenose" ship was away a year or more trading or carrying cargo from one place to another. The families of the captain and crew usually had no news of them until their ship sailed into harbour.



The steamships on the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes and the rapidly increasing traffic resulting from the opening up of Upper Canada brought demands for canals. The falls at Niagara and the many rapids between Kingston and Montreal limited the usefulness of the new ships, and canals were essential. The Lachine Canal was completed in 1825, and the Welland across the Niagara Peninsula was opened for traffic in 1829. Though the Rideau Canal was not built as a trade route but as a defence measure to carry supplies between Kingston and Montreal in case of war with the United States, it became, as soon as it was completed in 1832, a busy thoroughfare for ships carrying immigrants and freight. By way of the Rideau, vessels drawing not more than six feet of water could travel from Lake Huron to Montreal. These canals were all shallow and narrow, but they mark the beginning of the mighty St. Lawrence Seaway which since 1959 has permitted ocean liners to dock at the head of Lake Superior.

Ambitious business men in Montreal wanted to see canals on the St. Lawrence which would attract traffic not only from Upper Canada but also from the western American states. Their dreams of expanding the business of the harbour at Montreal were, however, doomed to disappointment. The traffic from the American west did not pour down the St. Lawrence. There were several reasons for this. The Americans did not stand idly by while their neighbours built canals. In 1825 they completed the Erie Canal from Buffalo to the Hudson River at Albany, whence ships could go down to New York. Since New York is one of the world's best harbours, open all year round, the traffic went to New York. Moreover, traffic, to be profitable, must be two-way. More people, more goods came across the Atlantic to New York than to Montreal and more ships were available there for carrying goods to the rest of the world.

Governments and private companies spent a great deal of money on canals both in Canada and in the United States but many of the canals, like the Rideau, were too shallow and too narrow for the large ships that came into use. When railways were built, providing faster year-round transportation, most of the canals, except the Erie Canal and those of the St. Lawrence, lost out in competition with the railways.

RAILWAYS

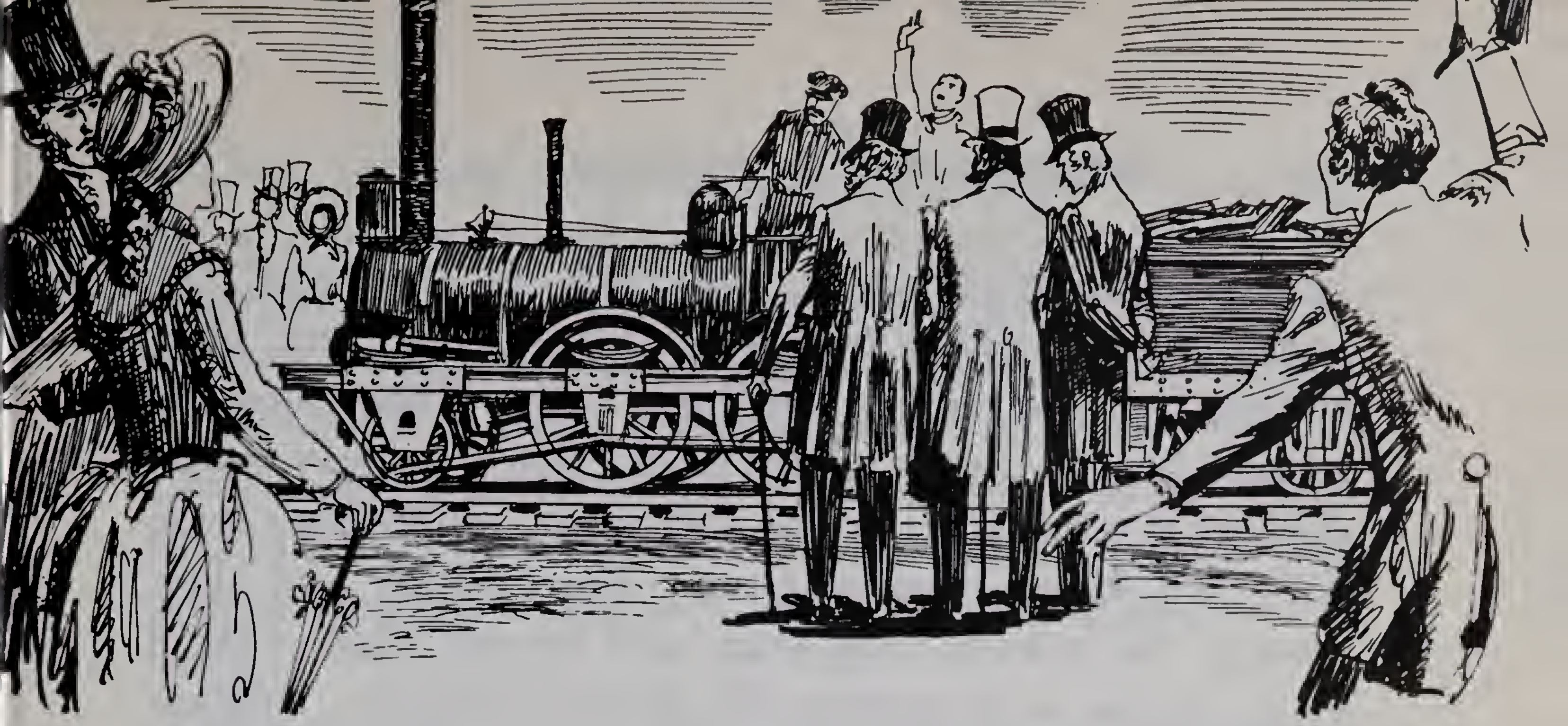
Railways have made even more changes in America than steamboats. They opened up areas in which there were no navigable rivers; they provided transportation for bulky goods such as wheat and coal. The great grain fields of the Middle West would never have been sown if there had been no railways to carry the wheat to market.

The first successful steam locomotive, George Stephenson's *Rocket,* made its trial run in England in 1829. Four years earlier an English newspaper had declared, "What can be more absurd and ridiculous than the prospect of locomotives travelling twice as fast as stage-coaches! . . . We should as soon expect the people . . . to suffer themselves to be fired off upon . . . rockets as trust themselves to the mercy of such a machine, going at such a rate!" Many people condemned the locomotives, saying they would ruin the countryside through which they travelled, that the crops would not grow, the cows would not give milk, the hens would not lay eggs. And, of course, the canal companies and the crews of the canal boats opposed them vigorously.

Canada's first railways were "portage" railways, that is, they connected two waterways or provided transport past rapids too swift to be safe for navigation. The first one, the *Champlain and St. Lawrence*, connected La Prairie, on the St. Lawrence River opposite Montreal, with St. Johns on the Richelieu, thus providing transportation past the Chambly Rapids on the Richelieu. It was a very primitive railway, only sixteen miles long. The rails were of wood with thin bars of iron spiked to them. These bars of iron, when the sun warmed them, expanded and came free of the rails, curling up sometimes like a snake raising its head. These snake rails, as they were called, caused trouble on the line as they sometimes caught in the undercarriage of the cars.

At first the *Champlain and St. Lawrence* was operated only in the summer and the cars were drawn by horses. In 1837 an engine, nicknamed the *Kitten* by its owners, was imported from England. An engineer came with it to show the Canadians how to run it, but when he heard what good wages were being paid to engineers south of the border, he disappeared. The engine was a disappointment at first. When the owners attempted to make a trial run, the *Kitten* would not budge. An engineer from the United States was called in, and his advice was "Give her more wood and more water." So they gave her more wood and more water and soon the *Kitten* puffed away at a speed of twenty miles an hour, to the amazement of the assembled crowd. It soon was running regularly and for many years the little railway paid good dividends to its owners.

For ten years the little *Champlain and St. Lawrence* was the only railway with a steam locomotive in Canada. In 1839 a railroad was built from Queenston to Chippawa to provide transportation past Niagara Falls, but the grades



The Governor-General, the Mayor of Montreal, and other dignitaries were guests on the first official run of the *Champlain and St. Lawrence* from La Prairie to St. Johns. They rode in cars drawn by the locomotive *Dorchester*, nicknamed the *Kitten*, while less important guests rode in sleigh boxes fastened to flatcars drawn by horses. The *Kitten* pulled two cars to St. Johns, and four cars on the way back, making the return trip in fifty-nine minutes.

were so steep on this line that the cars had to be pulled by horses. Then in 1847 a line eight miles long was built to carry goods past the Lachine Rapids.

Steamboats had made travel faster and more comfortable, but steamboats could go only where there were lakes or navigable rivers. They were no use in the winter when the rivers and the harbours were frozen over. Canadians realized that railways were the answer to their transportation problems.

In the meantime Britain and the United States were building railways at a great rate. By 1846 Britain had over twenty-eight hundred miles of railway and the United States had five thousand. These railways brought prosperity to the areas they served. Canadians wanted railways; they knew they needed railways; but Canada had been disturbed by the rebellion of 1837 and was going through a period of financial depression. There were few people in Canada who had much money to invest. Ambitious plans were made and charters granted for railways, but, by 1850, Canada had only sixty miles of track.

In 1849 the government undertook to guarantee the bonds of any railway over seventy-five miles long, after at least half the railway had been built. Then came the railway boom. Every village hoped that a railway would connect it with larger towns and cities. Short lines were built and longer ones planned. Many people put their savings into railway companies, and, though some of them made money, more of them lost their investment. Villages which were fortunate enough to be on or near a railway grew into towns, while some of the older villages which were less fortunate withered away and died. By 1860 there were two thousand and sixty-five miles of railway in British North America.

A GROWING NETWORK OF RAILWAYS

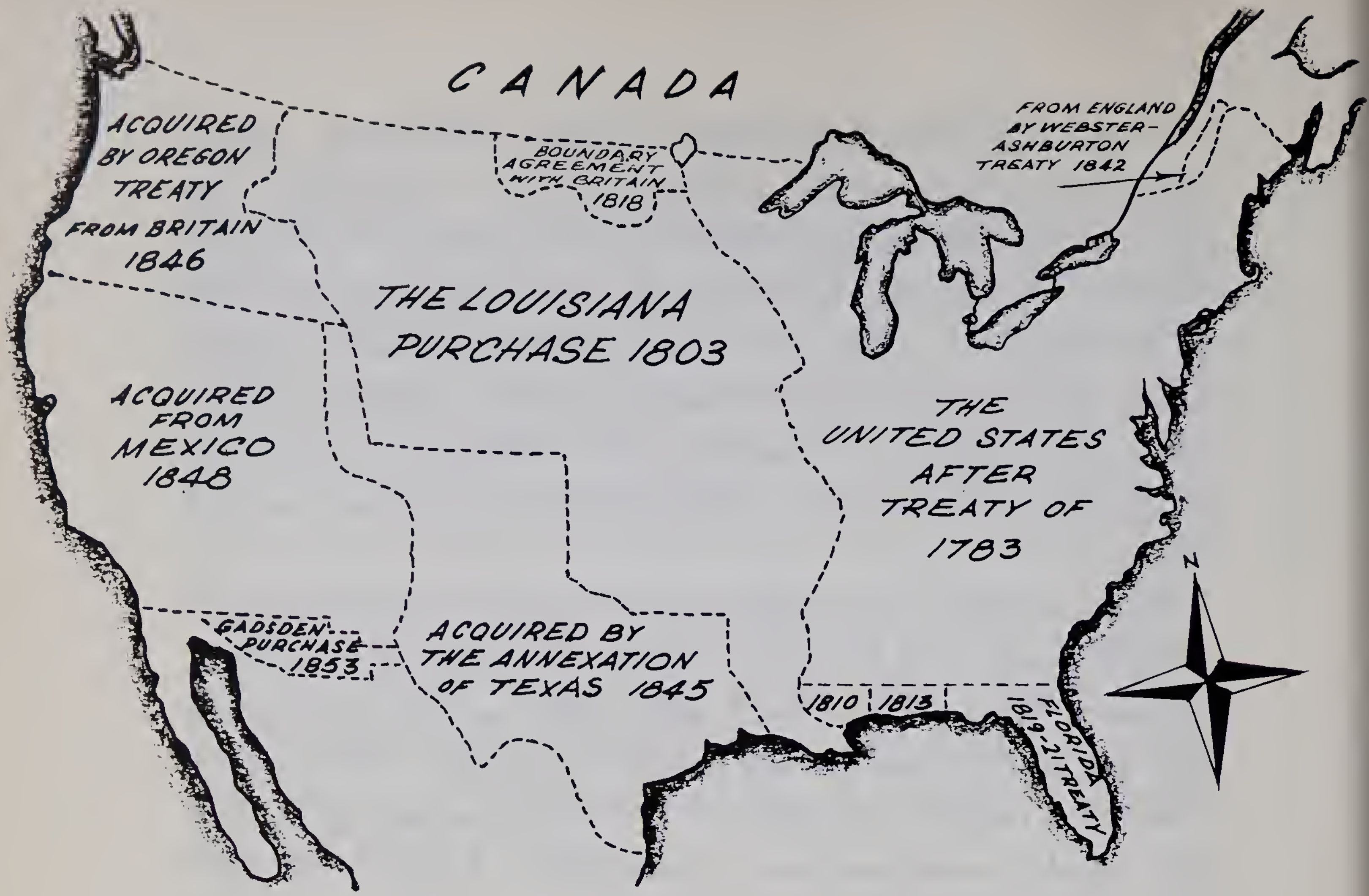
In Upper Canada the Great Western Railway was in 1854 completed from the Suspension Bridge over the Niagara River to Windsor by way of Hamilton and London. Later it added branch lines to Toronto and to Sarnia. By 1855 the Northern Railway was running trains from Toronto to Collingwood. There were several short lines, some of which were later absorbed by the larger companies.

The longest line was the Grand Trunk which in 1860 ran from Rivière du Loup to Lévis, opposite Quebec, to Montreal, where it crossed the Victoria Bridge, then west through Kingston, Brockville, Oshawa, and Toronto to Sarnia. A branch line was built from Montreal to Portland, Maine, by which goods could be shipped in and out of the country when the St. Lawrence was ice-bound in winter.

Great was the enthusiasm in every town and village along these lines as the railways neared completion. In Montreal a sum of over $40,000 was collected for a celebration. When the first through train ran from Toronto to Montreal in 1856, a crowd waited at every station. Loud cheers greeted the president and the directors when the train pulled in. Speeches were made at every stop prophesying the unbounded prosperity the railway would bring.

Railways had a great effect upon Canada. They brought Canada out of the pioneer stage by opening up trade between the provinces and with other nations on a scale that the settlers had hardly dared to imagine. They broke down the barriers of distance between the provinces and thus made confederation a possibility. As early as 1858 they made it possible for Canadians to grasp the vision of a "Great British Empire of the North . . . with its face to the south and its back to the pole, with its right and left resting on the Atlantic and the Pacific, and with the telegraph and the iron road connecting the two oceans."

A few short lines had been built in the Maritime Provinces and people began to talk about a railway to connect Canada with the provinces by the sea. Many attempts were made to persuade the British Government to provide funds to help build railways which would connect the Maritime Provinces with the Canadas. When these failed, the people of the colonies began to realize that, if they were to have railways, they would have to do something about it themselves. They would have to work together and build them. Indeed, some of the strongest support for confederation came from those who hoped that together the provinces could do what no one of them could do by itself — build a railway to connect the Maritimes with Canada and extend the line to the Pacific coast.


CANADA
ACQUIRED BY OREGON TREATY FROM BRITAIN 1846
BOUNDARY AGREEMENT WITH BRITAIN 1818
FROM ENGLAND BY WEBSTER-ASHBURTON TREATY 1842
THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE 1803
ACQUIRED FROM MEXICO 1848
THE UNITED STATES AFTER TREATY OF 1783
GADSDEN PURCHASE 1853
ACQUIRED BY THE ANNEXATION OF TEXAS 1845
1810
1813
FLORIDA 1819-21 TREATY
N

13. The United States Moves West

"We primeval forests felling,
We the rivers stemming, vexing we and piercing deep the mines within,
We the surface broad surveying, we the virgin soil upheaving,
Pioneers! O Pioneers!"

WALT WHITMAN: *Pioneers! O Pioneers!*

During the first half of the nineteenth century the United States pushed its boundaries out to the south-east, to the south-west, to the west, and to the north until it attained its present size. During this period the population of the British North American colonies increased very rapidly, but the growth, both in population and in territory, made by the United States was stupendous. Immigrants poured in by the thousands. To many an ambitious family in Europe, America seemed to be the promised land. Thousands came from poverty-stricken Ireland, happy to go to a country which had thrown off the rule of England.

Others came from England, from Wales, from Scotland, from Germany, from Sweden, from nearly every country in Europe, seeking a better living than they had enjoyed in their own country, seeking land, seeking freedom.

THE TIDE OF SETTLEMENT FLOWS WEST

Territories became states, and new settlers raced in to fill new territories. Planters from the southern states moved west into Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Louisiana, and Texas, where they found fertile virgin soil for cotton and tobacco. Farmers from the New England states, from New York and Pennsylvania, sought new lands in Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Iowa. Adventurous souls pressed on to Kansas, Nebraska, Minnesota, the Dakotas, and even to Oregon and California. So many people were seeking new homes that it seemed as though a whole nation was on the move. The trails were white with covered wagons.

Thousands of families loaded their household goods into high wagons with tent-like tops, took what stock they thought could survive the long trek, and set out. When they reached Indian country, the pioneers travelled in parties, sending out scouts to see whether there was danger ahead. At night they drew up their wagons in a circle and sentries guarded the camp, listening carefully for any strange sound. Sometimes whole parties were killed or taken prisoner by the Indians. Babies were born as the wagons moved westward, young people met and married, and some of the adventurers, who had started the trek with high hopes, died and were buried beside the trail.

Often the pioneers were longer on the trail than they expected to be and food became scarce. Often a woman stood sadly watching some of her most treasured possessions being abandoned because the load was too heavy for the horses or oxen, or too heavy to be floated across the many rivers they had to ford. But accounts of difficulties and disasters did not stop the steady stream of pioneers making their way westward. Many of the families of the western states boast that their ancestors came out in covered wagons or tell with pride how great-great-grandmother defended her cabin from the Indians while the men were away.

In 1803, as we have seen, the United States doubled in size as a result of the purchase of Louisiana from France. Then, as we shall see, in 1819 it acquired Florida. In 1842 a treaty set the boundary between Maine and the British possessions. In 1845 Texas was annexed, and in 1848, as a result of war with Mexico, California, Nevada, Utah, most of Arizona, and of New Mexico, and part of Colorado, were surrendered to the United States. By the Oregon treaty with Britain in 1846 the boundary in the northwest was set at the 49th parallel of latitude. Perhaps it is not surprising that the Americans, having gained so much in so short a time, thought that it was their destiny to rule over the whole continent.

FLORIDA

General Andrew Jackson is given credit for the acquisition of Florida. Jackson had won renown by his defence of New Orleans during the war of 1812-14. His soldiers nicknamed him "Old Hickory" after "the toughest thing they could think of". When Indians from Florida were troubling the people of the neighbouring states, Jackson attacked them and followed them right into Florida which was still under Spanish control. Spain decided it might be wise to sell Florida to the United States before some enterprising Americans took it from them. A deal was made in 1819 for $5,000,000.

OLD HICKORY, THE PEOPLE'S PRESIDENT

The first five presidents, Washington, John Adams, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, and James Monroe, were all from the older states, Virginia and Massachusetts. The people of the new western states began to think that they should have more voice in running the country's affairs. Some of them wanted General Jackson to run as President. He was reluctant and said, "No, sir, I know what I am fit for. I can command a body of men in a rough way: but I am not fit to be President." His friends did not agree and he was nominated. In the election of 1824 he was defeated by John Quincy Adams of Massachusetts, but his supporters went right on working to have him elected next time. In 1828 when the choice was between

"John Quincy Adams who can write,
And Andrew Jackson who can fight"

Jackson was elected by an overwhelming majority.

"Old Hickory" was the first "log cabin" President; in other words, he was a poor boy who worked his way up to the top. Crowds of his supporters poured into Washington to see the inauguration of the "People's President". At the reception in the White House the crowd was so great that furniture and glasses were broken, mud and crumbs scattered over the carpet. Dignified Easterners were horrified by the boisterous manners of the frontiersmen who had come to see their hero become President.

Jackson shocked the people who had been accustomed to governing the country when he dismissed many government employees and replaced them with his supporters. The changes he made in the banking laws alarmed the rich business men. In order to find money to pay the public debt, he raised the duty on manufactured goods coming into the country. This offended South Carolina which threatened to secede from the Union. Jackson declared, "If one drop of blood is shed in South Carolina in defiance of the laws of the United States, I will hang the first man of them I can get my hands on to the first tree I can find." One of his friends said, "I can tell you when Jackson begins to talk about hanging, they can begin to look for the ropes." South Carolina did not secede.

It is difficult to keep track of the American political parties. After the Revolution two parties arose: the Federalists, to which Washington and John Adams belonged, and the anti-Federalists, later called Republicans, to which Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe belonged. When Andrew Jackson, a radical member of Jefferson's party, ran for office, his supporters called themselves Democratic Republicans, and during his term the party became known as the Democratic party. By this time the Federalists were calling themselves the National Republicans, then they called themselves Whigs, and eventually they became the Republican party.

THE NORTHERN BOUNDARY

After the war of 1812-14 four commissions were appointed to settle the boundary between the United States and the British possession to the north. The first one to bring in an agreement was the Passamaquoddy Bay Commission which in 1817 gave most of the islands under dispute to Britain. The same year the Rush-Bagot agreement was made, in which both nations agreed to limit the number of armed vessels on Lake Champlain and the Great Lakes.

This was a pioneer disarmament agreement which proved very effective in helping to maintain peace between the two neighbours.

The commission which had the task of fixing the boundary through the St. Lawrence to the western end of Lake Huron settled on the channel of communication as the boundary, and the islands north of it were given to Canada and those south of it to the United States. The commissions which were to settle the Maine-New Brunswick boundary and the boundary west of Lake Huron could not reach an agreement and these boundaries had to be settled later by treaty.

THE MAINE BOUNDARY

When Maine belonged to Britain and Acadia to France, naturally the British claimed as much of the territory as they could. On their maps they had included almost all the area not actually occupied by French settlers. This was common practice in the days before boundaries were set. The mapmakers of each country marked any unsettled area near their possessions with the name of their own country. When the dispute about the Maine boundary arose, the Americans were able to produce British maps on which the boundary was well to the north. Now that Britain was concerned about communication between New Brunswick and Lower Canada, Britain wanted the boundary set farther south. When the commissioners did not agree, the matter was referred to the King of the Netherlands who awarded most of the territory under dispute to the United States. The Americans said he had no right to set a new boundary, only the right to decide which of the two claims was correct. In 1842 the Webster-Ashburton Treaty established the boundary, giving the

United States about 7,000 square miles, and Britain 5,000. This was not the boundary according to either of the claims but was a fair division of the disputed territory. The large area of Maine separating New Brunswick and Lower Canada has made it expensive to connect the two provinces by an all-Canadian railway, and might have caused serious difficulties in time of war. Fortunately there has been no war between Britain and the United States since that time.

THE OREGON BOUNDARY

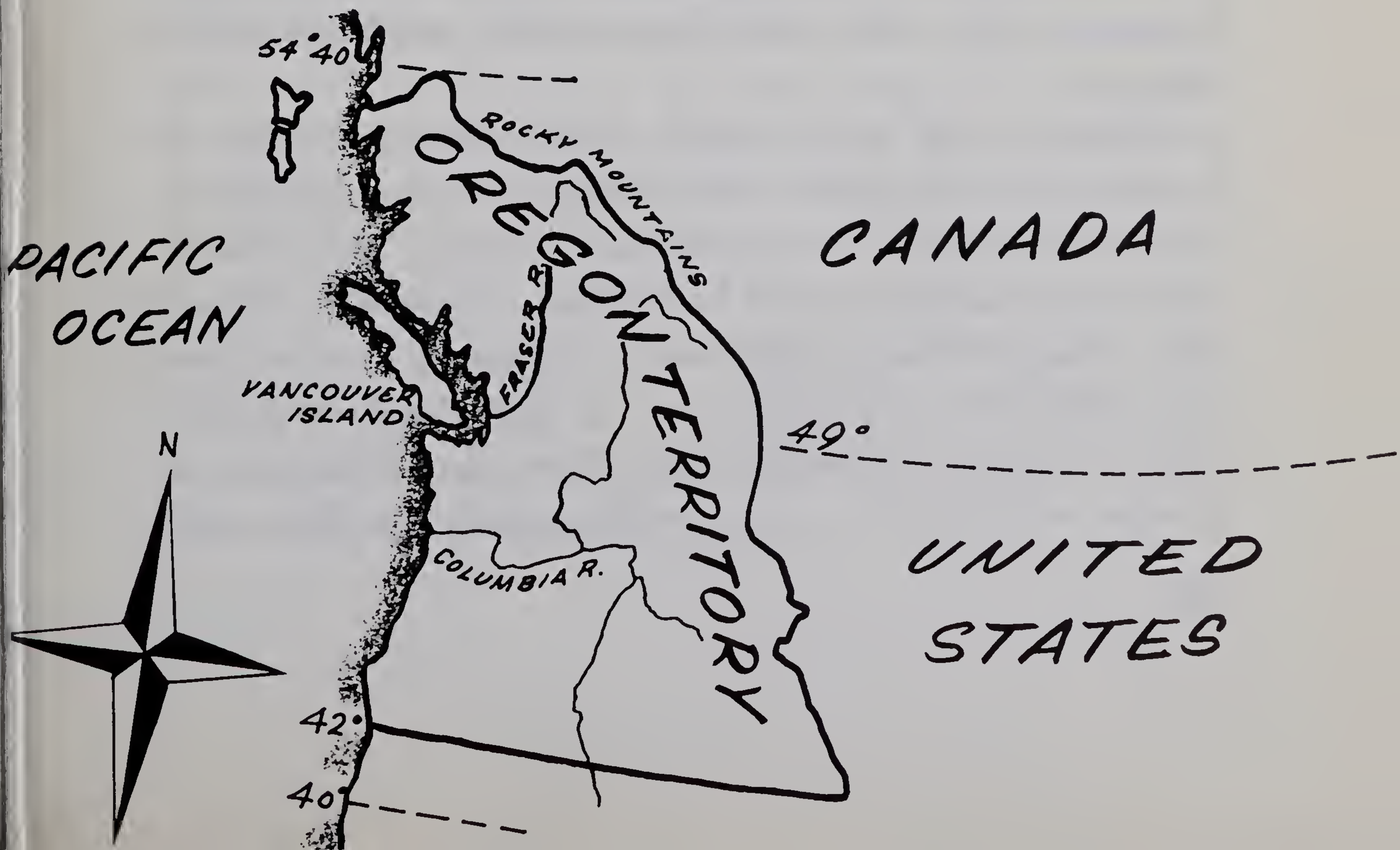
In 1818 Britain and the United States agreed that the boundary from the Lake of the Woods to the Rocky Mountains should be the 49th parallel. No decision was made about the territory west of the Rockies, but the two nations agreed that it should be open to fur-traders from both countries.

Spain owned California which extends north to the 42nd parallel. Russia owned Alaska and claimed control as far south as latitude 51°, but, after some negotiation, agreed to accept latitude 54° 40′ as her southern boundary. This left the southern part of British Columbia and the present states of Washington, Oregon, Idaho, and Montana to the British and American fur-traders. The Americans called this area the Oregon country. The Hudson's Bay Company called it the Columbia District.

When David Thompson reached the mouth of the Columbia in 1811 he found a trading-post there belonging to the Pacific Fur Company of New York. The next year the North West Company bought the fort and controlled most of the trade in that area. When the Hudson's Bay Company and the North West Company united in 1821, Britain gave the new Hudson's Bay Company a monopoly of trade west of the Rockies.

Dr. John McLoughlin was the Hudson's Bay man in charge of the Columbia Department with headquarters at Fort Vancouver on the Columbia. To Fort Vancouver came all the furs collected by the Company men west of the Rockies and from it they were shipped by sea to England. From Fort Vancouver, by canoe, by boat, and by pack-horse, trade goods were shipped in to the posts of the huge Columbia region. When Governor George Simpson visited the Columbia district in 1824 he predicted that, when the boundary line was settled, the Americans would insist on control of the Columbia River. Fort Langley was built in 1827 on the lower Fraser River so that if the Hudson's Bay Company lost Fort Vancouver it could make Fort Langley its headquarters.

Missionaries brought the first settlers into the Oregon country. Soon the Flathead Indians living near the Oregon country became convinced that the white men were the favourite children of the Great Spirit who ruled the world. They had learned that the white men had a book, which the Indians called the Book of Heaven, which taught them how they should live in order that they would go to the happy hunting-grounds when they died. In



1832 the chiefs of the Flatheads sent some of their tribe to ask the white men to come to tell them about the Book of Heaven.

The Indians made their way to St. Louis and there they asked for someone to come to their country to teach their people. An Eastern newspaper reported that their leader said, "My people sent me to get the Book of Heaven. You took me to where you worship the Great Spirit with candles, but the book was not there. You showed me images of the good Spirit and pictures of the good land beyond, but the book was not among them. You make my feet heavy with gifts, and my moccasins will grow old in carrying them; yet the book is not among them. My people will die in darkness, and they will go a long path to other hunting-grounds. No white man will go with them, and no white man's book to make the way plain."

The churches could not ignore this plea. Missionaries were sent out to the Oregon country. Dr. Marcus Whitman and his bride, with another newly married couple, set out in 1836. Once, when it appeared that the mission might be given up, Whitman travelled all the way across the continent to protest. Everywhere he went he told people of the rich fertile lands of the Columbia Valley. He even went to Washington and talked to members of Congress and to the President and the members of his Cabinet.

Whitman did not receive much encouragement in Washington but when he returned to Independence, Missouri, he found a thousand men, women, and children eager to accompany him to Oregon. It was a difficult trip. Many of them might not have gone if they had had any idea of the hardships and dangers they would encounter on the six months' trek from the Mississippi to Oregon — the hot dusty days on the prairie, the bitter cold nights in the mountains, the deep swift rivers, and steep mountains, and worst of all, the attacks by the Indians. In spite of all the hazards of the long trek, most of the brave adventurers reached the beautiful Willamette Valley in Oregon.

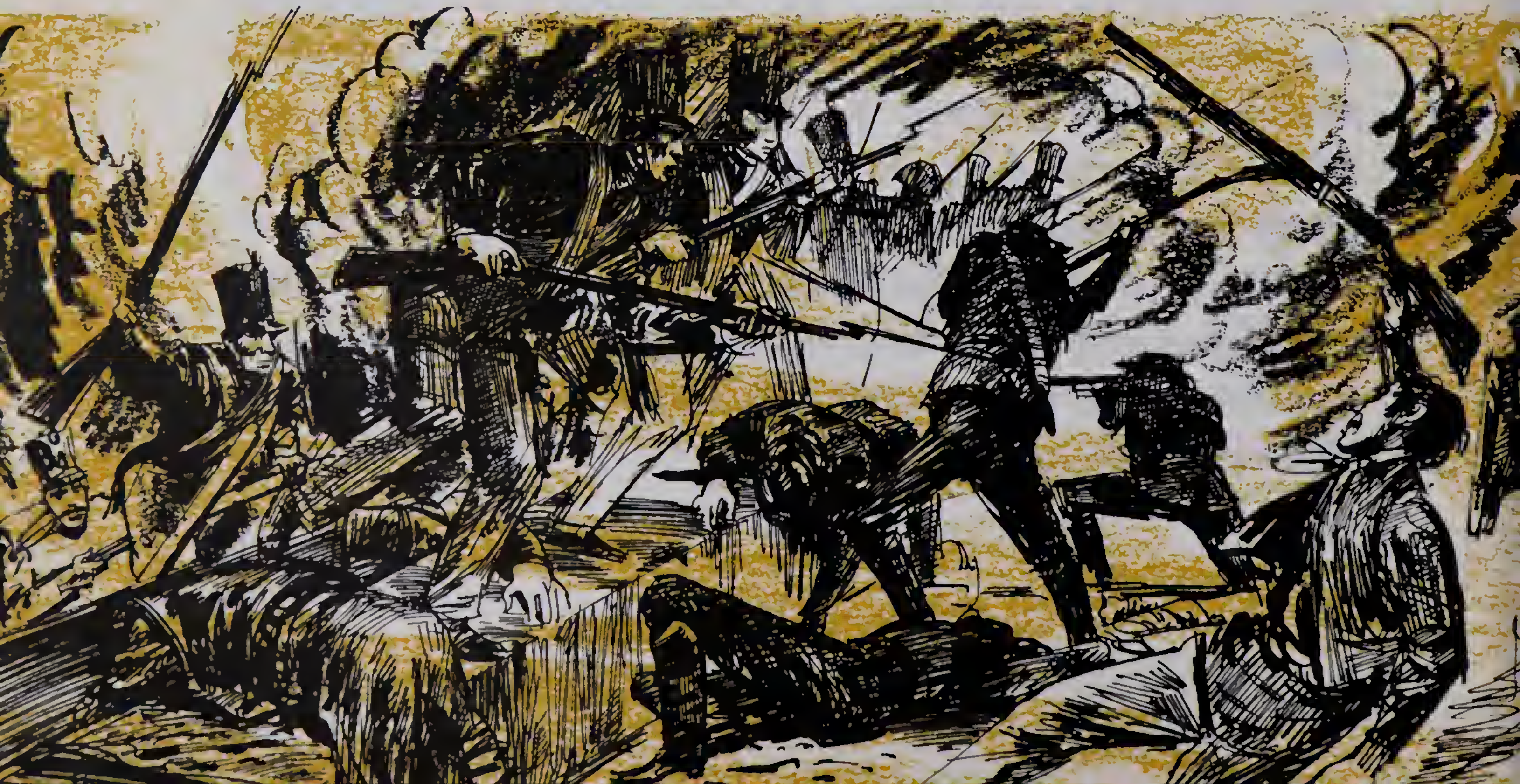
Dr. McLoughlin was kind to the settlers, although the Hudson's Bay Company did not approve of settlement in fur country and certainly did not approve of McLoughlin's kindness to the people. He realized that with so many settlers there the United States would be determined to possess Oregon, so he prepared to transfer the Company's headquarters farther north to territory likely to remain British. Since Fort Langley had not proved to be a good location on account of the difficulties of navigating the Fraser River, McLoughlin sent his assistant, James Douglas, to select a suitable place. Douglas chose the site of the present city of Victoria, the capital of British Columbia, and there Fort Victoria was built in 1843.

As Simpson had predicted, the Americans demanded that the Oregon country should belong to the United States. They were determined that the boundary should be the southern point of Alaska, latitude 54° 40′. The slogan "Fifty-Four Forty or Fight" became an election cry in 1844. Britain claimed the land as far south as the Columbia River and proved that only eight Americans lived north of the river. By the Treaty of Oregon the boundary was set at the 49th parallel from the Rockies to the sea, and through the Strait of Juan de Fuca round the southern tip of Vancouver Island. Britain had as much claim to Oregon as the United States had, but the Americans were in a war-like mood and, since there were few British in the country and since the Columbia district had never been a very profitable fur-trading area, Britain agreed to the compromise.

When Mexico won its independence from Spain, Texas and California were part of Mexico. There were several Spanish missions and some Spanish settlers in California and a few in Texas. In 1821 the Mexican Government gave Stephen Austin permission to locate three hundred American families on the Lower Brazos River. The good land soon attracted more Americans, and by 1834 about 30,000 more had come to make homes in Texas. At first the Americans got along well with the Mexican Government, but when Santa Anna overthrew the government and made himself dictator, the Texans declared that they would not obey a dictator. Santa Anna led troops into Texas to subdue this opposition. The Americans took up a position in an old Spanish mission called the Alamo, and there one hundred and eighty-three Texans held out for eleven days until every Texan soldier was killed.

The disaster at the Alamo made the Texans more determined than ever to become independent of Mexico. Under General Sam Houston, Texan troops shouting "Remember the Alamo!" defeated and captured Santa Anna. Texas became a republic, with Sam Houston as its first

The heroic defence of the Alamo has a place in history comparable to the bold stand of the Spartans against the Persians at Thermopylae in 480 B.C. Both the Spartans and the Texan soldiers fought to the last man.



President. Because it had a flag with a single star on a blue background, Texas is often called "The Lone Star State".

Some of the Texans wanted to remain independent but others wanted to join the United States, for they knew there were not enough people in their huge territory to defend it in the event of attack by Mexico or any other nation. Some Americans wanted to annex Texas because they thought it was the obvious destiny of the United States to control the whole continent. Some, however, opposed annexation because they feared it would mean war with Mexico, and many Northerners opposed it because there were slaves in Texas and they did not want any more slave states in the Union.

In 1845 Texas was admitted to the United States and in 1846 Mexico and the United States were at war. The United States won and in 1848 California, Utah, Nevada, and part of Colorado, Wyoming, New Mexico, and Arizona were ceded to the United States. In return the Americans paid Mexico $15,000,000.

Five years later James Gadsden was sent by Congress to negotiate with Mexico for a strip of land along the southern border of New Mexico and Arizona. In 1853 the United States paid $10,000,000 for the Gadsden Purchase.

ALASKA

William Seward, Secretary of State, was one of the Americans who hoped that the United States would some day control all of North America. He was delighted when the Russians offered, in 1867, to sell Alaska for a little over $7,000,000. Many Americans thought Seward must be mad to want "that snowbank", "that icebox". They called it "Seward's Folly". But Alaska has turned out to be very valuable because of the fish and seals in its coastal waters, because of its rich resources of gold and timber, and because it is a strategic possession in case of war with an Asian power. In 1959 Alaska became the forty-ninth state of the American Union, and on July 4th of that year the American Government issued a new flag with forty-nine stars.

Thus by treaty, by war, and by purchase, the United States extended its boundaries.

14. Gold on the West Coast

"We heard the call and we staked our all;
We were plungers playing blind,
And no man cared how his neighbour fared,
And no man looked behind."

ROBERT W. SERVICE: *Ballad of the Northern Lights*

GOLD IN CALIFORNIA

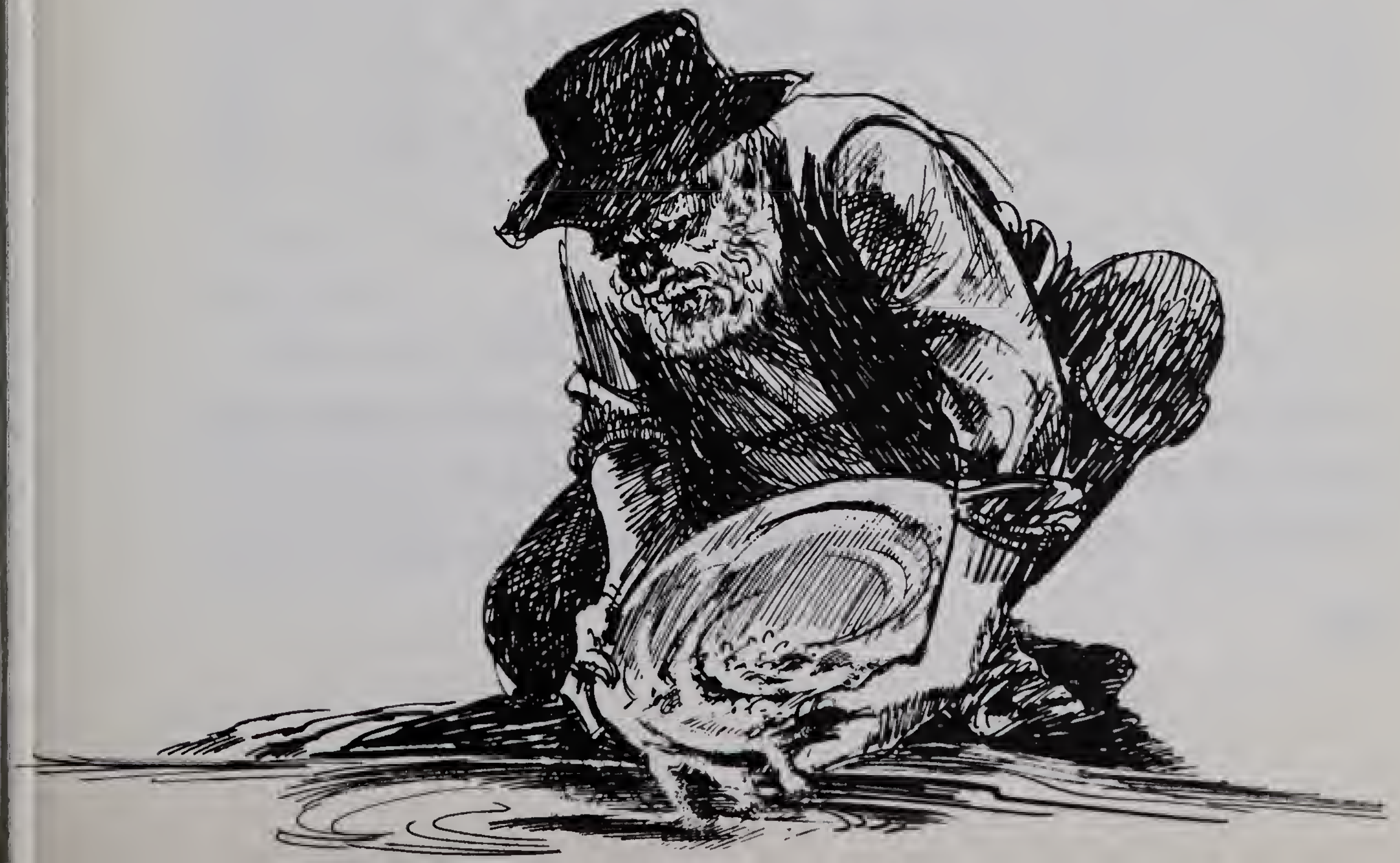
Where the city of Sacramento, California, now stands, a German named John Sutter established a colony in 1839. The Mexican Government gave him a huge grant of land and there he raised thousands of cattle, sheep, and horses. In 1847 he sent one of his employees, James Marshall, to find a good site for a sawmill. Marshall chose a spot on the American River and while the workmen were digging in the channel, he spied bright gleaming specks which he thought might be gold. He gathered some and tried every test he knew — hammering it thin, dropping it into the strong lye of the cook's soap kettle — and became convinced it was gold.

News of gold travels fast. As soon as the people of San Francisco heard rumours of it, the gold rush was on. Farmers left their crops standing in the fields, and grabbed picks, shovels, and dishpans. Merchants put signs on their doors "Off to the Diggings", and locked their shops. Soldiers deserted the army and sailors abandoned their ships to join in the mad rush.

No expensive equipment was needed. A man with a pick, a shovel, and a dishpan could wash as much as fifty dollars' worth of gold in a day. He put a shovelful of gravel in the pan, poured water on it, and shook it from side to side with a rotating movement. Since the gold was heavy, it sank to the bottom of the pan, while the water washed away the lighter gravel. When one panful had been washed, the miner put the gold nuggets and gold dust into his leather bag and started to wash out another pan of gravel.

When the news of the gold reached the East, there was tremendous excitement. Gold-seekers set out in hordes, by land and by sea, to share the wealth. Men on horses and mules, men driving ox-drawn prairie schooners, men in rickety wagons raced across the continent. Ships sailed from every eastern harbour. Any battered old ship that

A placer miner at work panning gold. When he went to the settlement to buy supplies he paid for his purchases in gold dust or in gold nuggets.



would float found plenty of passengers eager to embark on the long journey, sometimes as long as nine months, to the land of promise.

San Francisco grew into a lawless, roaring town. Many of the "forty-niners" were rough violent men. Every man carried his gun, and robbery and murder were common. Since there were no police to maintain law and order some of the more responsible citizens formed Vigilantes committees which seized and punished law-breakers. The justice they meted out was rough and ready but it did keep the more lawless elements of the population in check.

In the first twelve years after the discovery, gold to the value of $600,000,000 was taken from the diggings. The first comers had little difficulty filling their leather bags but after the first few years few of the gold-seekers became rich. When the surface gold had been taken out, the digging became more difficult and the miners had no machinery for digging deep into the gravel. Even as early as 1855 thousands of the "forty-niners" had left, some with a fortune in their money belts, others broke, having lost or spent all they made.

Some of the people who had come to find gold stayed, attracted by the pleasant climate and recognizing the possibilities of agriculture in sunny California.

The gold rush ruined John Sutter. His workmen rushed away to the gold diggings, and he could not find men to look after his herds. Miners overran his ranch. Later the government of California gave him a pension of $250 a month.

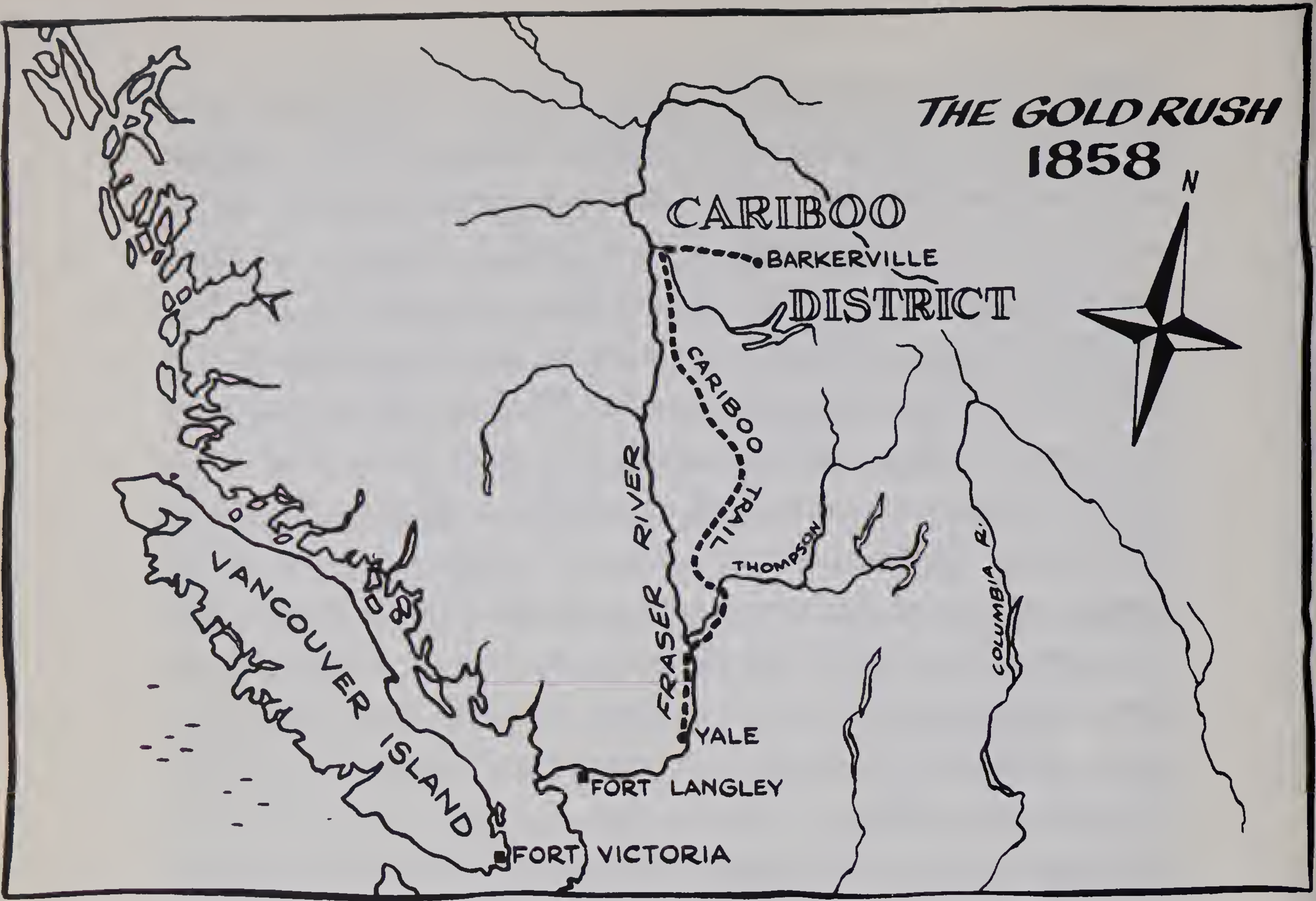
GOLD IN BRITISH COLUMBIA

In the summer of 1856 an Indian stooped to drink from the water of the Thompson River in British Columbia. As he stooped, his eye was attracted by a shining reddishyellow pebble in the bed of the stream. He picked it up and kept it. Later he found that it was a golden nugget, and that the Hudson's Bay Company traders considered it as valuable as many furs. Other Indians began collecting the pretty pebbles. They found them not only in the bed of the Thompson River, but also in the Fraser River. In 1857 the Indians brought in to the Hudson's Bay Company posts no less than eight hundred ounces of gold. The news of this discovery spread like wild-fire. Miners from the California diggings came north in thousands. As if by magic, a city of tents sprang up round the Hudson's Bay Company post at Fort Victoria on Vancouver Island. Long lines of men stood waiting their turn at the Company's store, and the Company's smithy was besieged for picks, shovels, and ladles. Among the newcomers were many dangerous men, with fingers that found easily the triggers of their revolvers. It looked as though the Hudson's Bay men would have difficulty in preserving the peace among these reckless adventurers.

JAMES DOUGLAS MAINTAINS LAW AND ORDER

Fortunately, the governor of Vancouver Island at this time was a Scotsman of great courage, foresight, and energy, James (afterwards Sir James) Douglas. He had entered the fur trade when he was seventeen, and by the time he was thirty had become chief factor of the Hudson's Bay Company on the Pacific Coast. In 1843 he founded Fort Victoria on Vancouver Island. When Vancouver Island was made a Crown colony in 1849 he was appointed governor.

When the horde of miners and prospectors flocked into Victoria in 1858, Douglas lost no time in dealing with the situation. He made it understood that Vancouver Island was British territory, and that none of the lawlessness

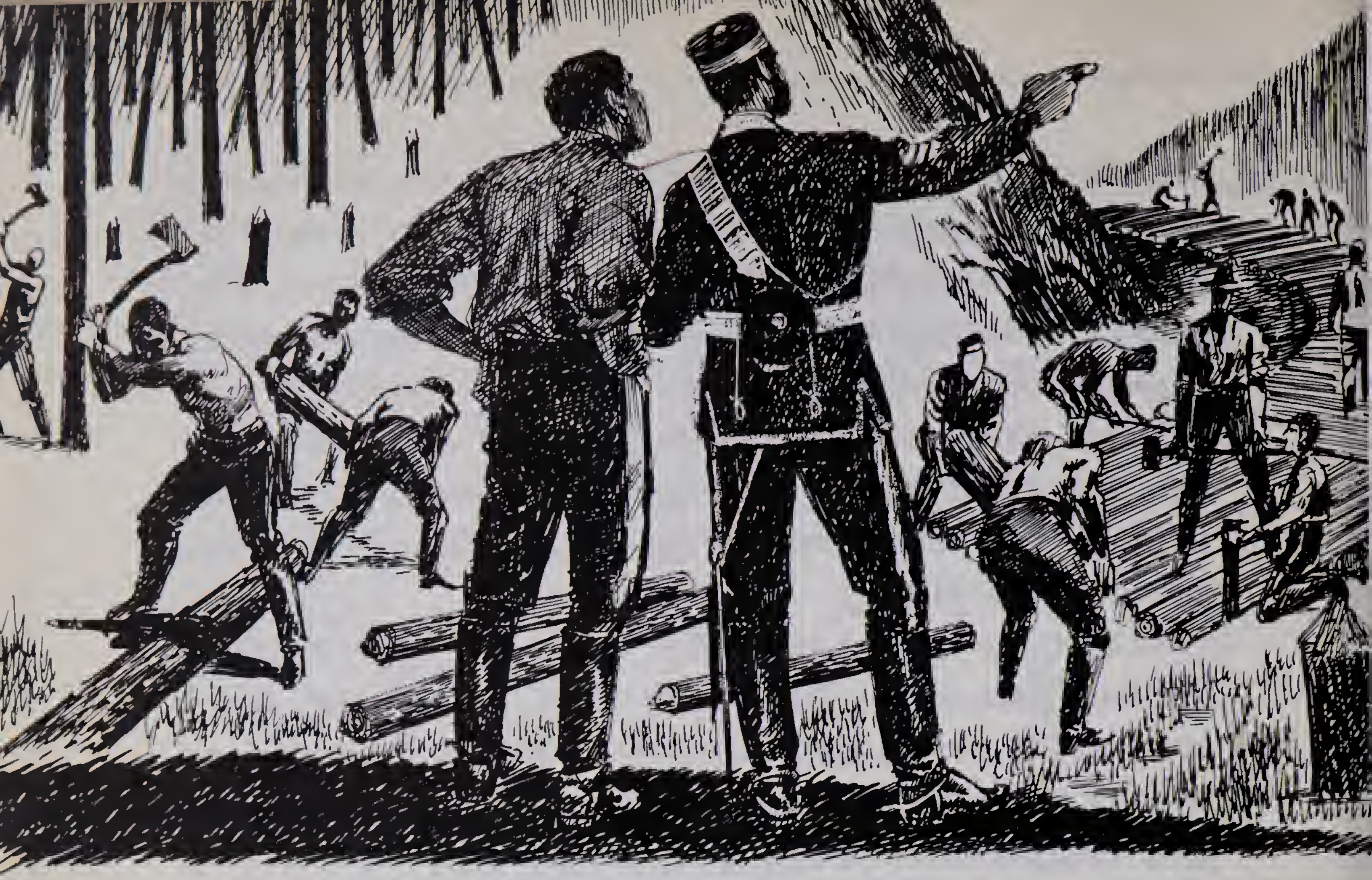

THE GOLD RUSH
1858
N
CARIBOO
BARKERVILLE
DISTRICT
CARIBOO TRAIL
FRASER RIVER
THOMPSON
COLUMBIA R.
YALE
FORT LANGLEY
VANCOUVER ISLAND
FORT VICTORIA

which had characterized the California gold rush would be permitted. He made every miner who proposed to go into the interior pay a registration fee, and, in order to cope with those who went direct to the mouth of the Fraser without stopping at Victoria, he gave orders that they should pay a tax for each canoe and each boat. Douglas had really no authority to levy these taxes, but through them he kept some record of those who went into the interior, and thus was able to maintain some control over the wilder element among the miners.

Later, in 1858, when the British Government made the mainland of British Columbia a Crown colony, Douglas was made governor there as well as on Vancouver Island. This appointment established his authority to preserve law and order in the mining camps. When word came that disorders had broken out near Yale on the Fraser, Douglas promptly set out in the stern-wheeler *Enterprise* with a hundred blue-jackets, a company of Royal Engineers, a cannon, and a judge, and quelled the disorders on the spot. To their surprise, the miners found out that Douglas could bring British soldiers and a British judge into their midst within a few days. There was little further trouble. The miners learned that in British Columbia the law must be obeyed.

At first the miners contented themselves with working the sand-bars of the Fraser near Yale. Before long, however, the more adventurous pushed farther up the river and its tributaries, hoping to discover the source of the gold which the river had washed down. A second gold rush began in 1859 when sensational new discoveries were made in the Cariboo district, where the creeks flowing into the Fraser were found to be much richer in gold than the sand-bars had been. Douglas at once set the Royal Engineers to work to build a road — still known as the Cariboo Trail — overland to the gold diggings. In the next five years millions of dollars' worth of gold were taken out and huge fortunes were made.

At one time there must have been over ten thousand miners in the colony. Some of them became very rich. Some of them found no gold at all. Indeed, one of Governor Douglas's most difficult problems was caring for miners who had spent all their money, and had not found gold. In time, the unsuccessful miners left the country, and the population of the "gold colony" dropped to a fraction of what it had been. By the end of 1860, there were only about four thousand miners at work. They were the first settlers in what has become one of the wealthiest provinces of the Dominion.



The building of the Cariboo Road to the gold fields in the interior of British Columbia was started in 1862. When completed, the road was over four hundred and eighty miles long.

In 1866 Vancouver Island and British Columbia were united, and became a self-governing province, with a Legislative Council and a Legislative Assembly, like those of the other British provinces in North America. Sir James Douglas did not favour the introduction of government by an assembly elected by the people. Ever since he had entered the service of the Hudson's Bay Company he had been accustomed to take orders from his superiors and give them to his juniors. He had enjoyed authority too long and exercised it too well to be willing to see it handed over to an assembly. He knew that there were many people who had thought his rule too strict and he could not believe that such people were capable of governing themselves. Now that the Hudson's Bay Company was no longer in control of the country, it was a suitable time for him to retire. He took a trip to Europe and then returned to spend the rest of his days quietly in Victoria, no doubt often shaking his head in disapproval of the way in which the government was carried on without him. But his place in history is secure. He guided the destiny of British Columbia in its early and difficult days with wisdom, firmness, and courage. It is fitting that he should be remembered as "the Father of British Columbia".

For Further Study

Pupils should be encouraged to select one of the activities, 1, 2, 3 and 4.

1. Imagine that you are an Irish immigrant who has settled in the Peterborough district. Write a letter to your brother in Ireland urging him to come to Canada.
2. Imagine that you are a settler from Scotland who has settled at Arnprior. Write a letter to a friend in Scotland telling him about the grievances the settlers had and asking him to report conditions to an influential official so that steps may be taken to secure justice for the people The McNab was treating unfairly.
3. Imagine you are the wife of a settler who came from England to Upper Canada. Write a letter to your mother in England telling her about your journey to the new land and your difficulties. Describe the problems of keeping house in a pioneer cabin and tell her about a barn-raising bee and your preparations for it.
4. Imagine you are a settler in Upper Canada who came from England. Write a letter home to your friend in England advising him not to come to Canada and giving reasons for your advice.
5. On a map of Ontario mark the towns and villages that were established between 1800 and 1850.

6. Write and present a scene showing the law-abiding citizens of Bytown in 1837 discussing the shocking conditions existing there and deciding to form an association to maintain order.

7. Dramatize the meeting of the wintering partners with the Montreal partners when they make plans to move away from Grand Portage because it has become American territory.

8. Mark on a map of Canada the route of the fur brigades from Montreal to Lake Athabaska.

9. Make a mural of the Indians hunting the buffalo and of the Indian women preparing pemmican.

10. Mark on a map of Manitoba Selkirk's grant, the Red River, the Assiniboine River, Lake Winnipeg, Hudson Bay, Churchill, York Factory, the Hayes River.

11. If the Silver Chief could visit the site of his settlement at Red River to-day, what would he find to justify his faith in the western plains?

12. Dramatize a scene in which a group of sailors discuss the new steamships.

13. Write an editorial that might have appeared in a Montreal newspaper after the initial run of the first steam locomotive in Canada. Include a prediction of the changes railways may bring to Canada.

14. On a map of the St. Lawrence River mark the canals which were made to bypass rapids before 1900.

15. Imagine you were one of a party of pioneers who made their way by covered wagon from New York State to Nebraska. Write a letter to your brother in New York telling him about your journey and your prospects in your new home.

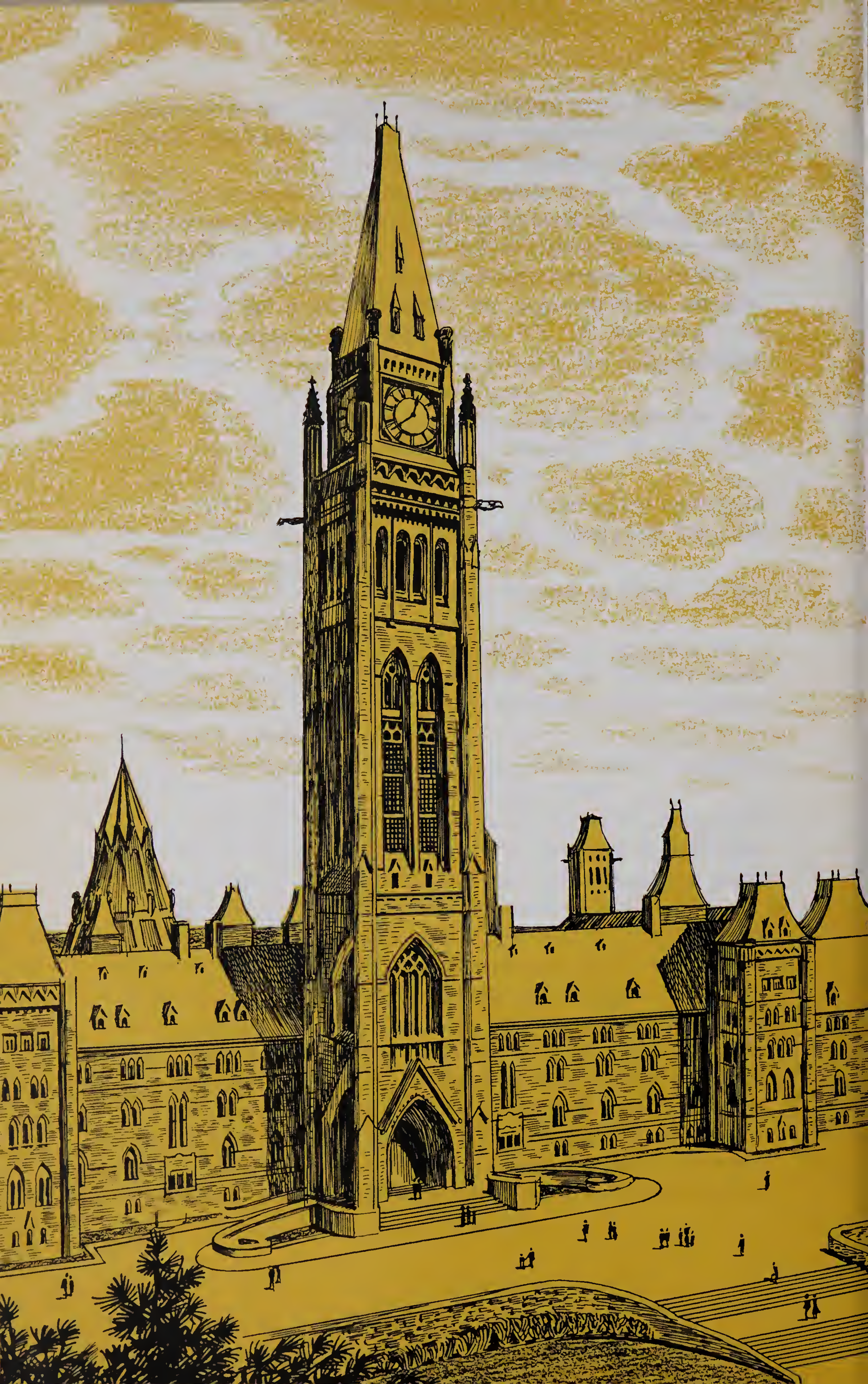
16. The miners in California and in British Columbia were placer miners. Describe their primitive method of obtaining gold and contrast it with modern placer mining.

17. Imagine that you were an employee of the Hudson's Bay Company at Fort Victoria when the gold rush took place and that you returned to England shortly afterwards. Tell your friends what you saw and answer their questions about life at Fort Victoria before and during the gold rush.

18. Add to your *Book of Ships* a ship bringing immigrants to Montreal, a bateau on the St. Lawrence, a Durham boat, a

York boat on Lake Winnipeg, the *Clermont,* the *Accommodation,* the *Royal William.* You will find E. C. Guillet's *Pioneer Transportation* a help.

19. Add to your stamp collection the 1958 five-cent stamp showing a miner panning gold, the 1951 five-cent stamp comparing trains of 1851 and 1951, and, if you can get them, the 1927 fifty-cent stamp with the picture of the schooner *Bluenose* and the 1933 five-cent one commemorating the hundredth anniversary of the S.S. *Royal William*'s voyage across the Atlantic.



IV. *Canadians Win the Right to Manage Their Own Affairs*

15. Our Free Government To-day

> "Man is by nature a political animal."
>
> ARISTOTLE: *Politics*

People cannot live together, work together, play together, without rules or laws. Wherever people live, work, or play together, they find for themselves leaders who become responsible for seeing that the rules are obeyed.

Baseball and hockey teams have their captains. Everyone realizes that, if every member of the team decides for himself what he will do, the game cannot be very successful. Therefore the team elects a captain who will speak for it. If the team does not approve of what the captain does it holds a meeting and chooses another captain.

Societies, such as the Junior Red Cross, have rules and elect officers to carry on their business according to the rules. These officers are responsible to the society. If they do not carry on the business of the organization as the members want it done, they will not be re-elected.

Nations must have laws and people who are responsible for carrying out the laws. When the men and women who make the laws and manage the affairs of the country are elected by the people, that nation is said to have a *democratic system* of government.

A democratic government is not afraid to let the people think and talk freely. In Canada we have freedom of speech. We may criticize the government if we wish to do so. We are not allowed, however, to urge people to put the government out by force. We have freedom of assembly, that is, we have the right to hold meetings to discuss matters which concern us. We have freedom of the press. Our newspapers may criticize the government and propose changes in the way we are governed.

We are justly proud of our democratic system of government. The laws of Canada are laws which are made by the representatives we elect. If we want to change certain laws, we can change them by electing to Parliament people who believe those laws should be changed.

Every Canadian citizen over twenty-one years of age has the right to vote to elect the men and women who manage our national affairs and make our laws.

OUR TOWN COUNCIL

We elect members to our Town or City Council or to the Council of the Rural Municipality in which we live. Some are elected for one year, some for two years. If they do not manage our affairs as we want them managed, we choose other people at the next election. The members of these councils deal with matters which concern their own homes, such as streets and sidewalks, police and fire protection, water supply, garbage collection, bicycle licences, libraries, and parks. They decide what taxes are needed to pay the cost of providing the services that the people of the district want. In some towns the people want playgrounds and community halls, and are willing to pay higher taxes so that they can have them. In other towns the citizens are not willing to pay for improvements. The members of the Council must do what they believe the citizens want. Otherwise those members will not be elected again.

THE SCHOOL BOARD

The voters of each community elect members to the School Board, which has the responsibility of looking after the schools in the district. The Department of Education of the provincial government decides what subjects shall be taught in each grade, what textbooks shall be used, how many days a year and how many hours a day the schools will be open, and what qualifications the teachers must have. The Department of Education appoints inspectors who travel through their districts to see that the schools are being run according to the regulations of the Department. You might think that, since the Department of Education decides so many matters, there would not be much left for the local school board, but you would be wrong. The School Board looks after constructing and maintaining the school buildings, and seeing that they are kept in good condition and heated in winter. It also engages teachers and sometimes dismisses them. It makes all local decisions, such as whether the school will have a noon break of an hour or an hour and a half. In the larger centres the School Board engages superintendents, directors, and supervisors who visit the schools to see that the work is being done and to help the teachers. It informs the Municipal Council how much money will be needed each year for the schools.

In each province the citizens elect members to the Provincial Legislature which manages the affairs of the province and makes laws for it when new laws are needed. Elections to the Provincial Legislature take place at least every five years, sometimes more frequently. If the people of the province do not like the way the members manage public affairs, they vote for other representatives at the next election. The members of the Legislature look after matters which concern the whole province, such as education, public health, highways, and bridges, and make laws governing speed on the highways and employment within the province. They also determine what taxes are needed to provide the money to pay the expenses of governing the province.

THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

We also elect representatives to the National or Federal Parliament which meets in Ottawa, the capital of Canada. This Parliament was established by the British North America Act in 1867, about which you will read in Chapter 28. It consists of three parts: the Sovereign, represented usually by the Governor-General, the Senate, and the House of Commons.

THE SENATE

The Senate consists of 102 members, who are appointed for life by the Governor-General on the advice of the Prime Minister. There are twenty-four Senators from Quebec, twenty-four from Ontario, ten each from Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, six each from Manitoba, British Columbia, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and Newfoundland, and four from little Prince Edward Island.

Senators must be at least thirty years old, must live in the province for which they are appointed, and must possess property worth $4,000. When the Fathers of Confederation were deciding how the country should be governed, they decided to establish a system as much like that of Great Britain as possible. In Britain there is a House of Lords and a House of Commons. Members of the House of Lords inherit their titles and their right to sit in the House of Lords. Since Canada had no large number of people with titles, it was decided that the Governor-General in Council (which means the Governor-General acting on the advice of the Prime Minister and the Cabinet) should appoint representative citizens for life to the Senate, in order to create an upper house something like the House of Lords.

It was intended that the Senate would be made up of wise and experienced citizens who would be above politics and would make their decisions solely on their opinion about what was good for the country, unaffected by party loyalties. What has happened, however, is that since the Senators are appointed on the advice of the Prime Minister, he usually chooses people who have been faithful party workers. When the Conservatives were in power for a long time, they appointed Conservative Senators. When the Liberals came into power, there was a Liberal House of Commons but a Conservative Senate. This sometimes led to difficulties in coming to an agreement. When the Hon. John Diefenbaker and the Conservatives were elected in 1957, most of the Senators were Liberals, for the Liberals had been in power for twenty-two years and whenever a Senator died, a Liberal was appointed to take his place. There were, however, sixteen vacancies which the Liberal leader, the Hon. Louis St. Laurent, had not filled. Before long Mr. Diefenbaker appointed Conservative Senators to fill these vacancies.

The House of Commons is elected by the people of the provinces of Canada on a basis of representation according to population. There must be an election at least every five years. Then the voters have an opportunity to show their representatives whether they approve of the way the business of the country has been carried on.

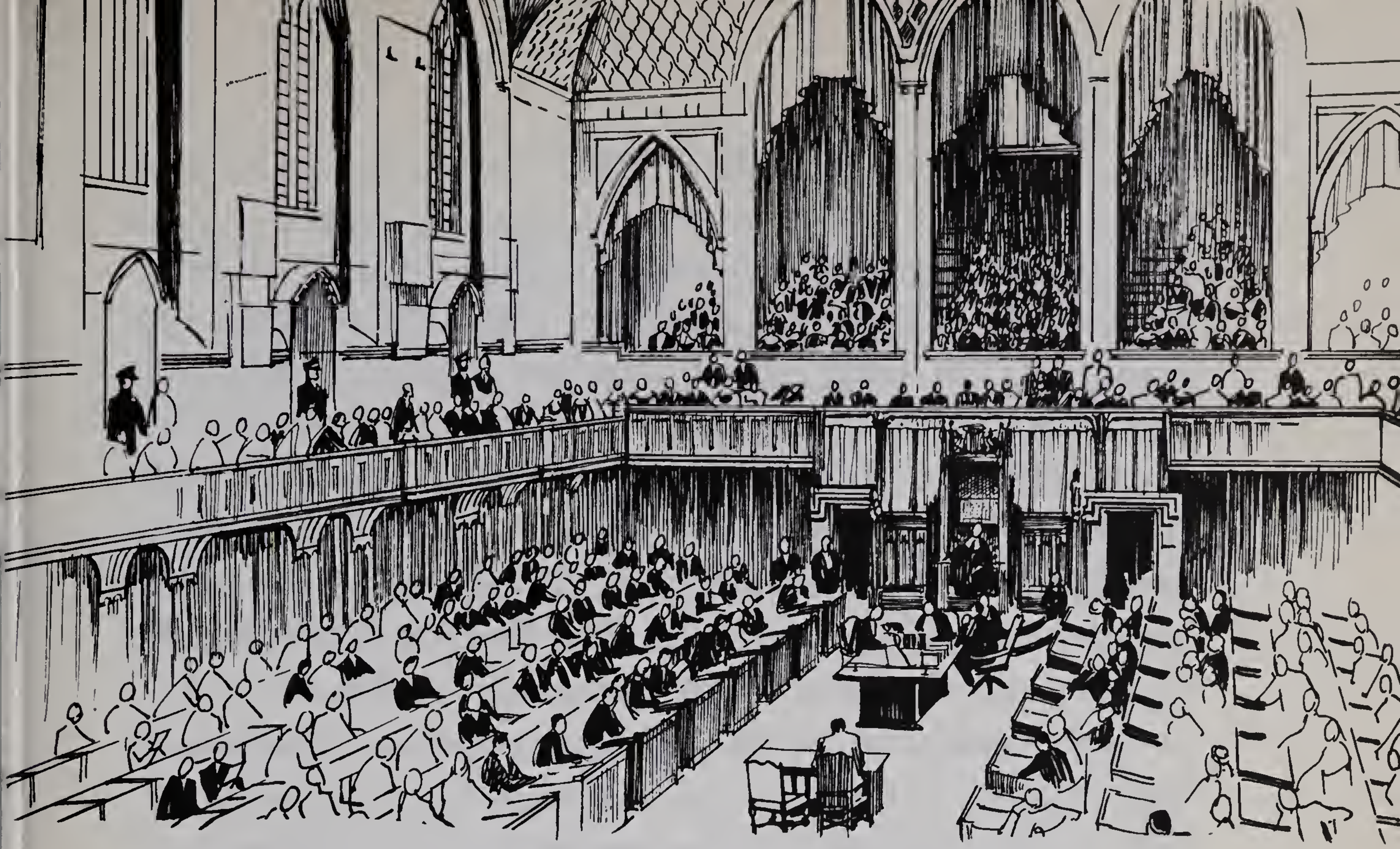
The provinces send representatives in proportion to their total population, with each province divided into electoral districts containing approximately equal numbers of people. There are exceptions to this rule. No province sends fewer members to the House of Commons than it sends to the Senate; therefore, Prince Edward Island sends four members, even though its population does not warrant so many. The District of Yukon and the North West Territories, though they have fewer voters than live in the other electoral districts, each elect one member to the House of Commons. In 1958, 265 members were elected to the House of Commons.

A census is taken every ten years, and, if necessary, the distribution of members is adjusted after the census.

REPRESENTATION IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS AS ELECTED IN 1958

Ontario	85	Prince Edward Island	4
Quebec	75	Alberta	17
Nova Scotia	12	Saskatchewan	17
New Brunswick	10	Yukon	1
Manitoba	14	North West Territories	1
British Columbia	22	Newfoundland	7

The House of Commons and the Senate make the laws about all matters which concern the whole of Canada.



The Speaker presides over the House of Commons in session. Seated at his right are the Prime Minister, the Cabinet ministers, and the other members of the party in power. To his left are the opposition party members.

Parliament has control over the army, the navy, the air force and everything relating to the defence of Canada. It makes the laws which apply to the railways, harbours, and canals; to postal services, money, and banking. It makes treaties and trade agreements with other countries. And it determines what taxes are needed to pay the huge cost of managing the affairs of the nation.

PARLIAMENT AT WORK

The members of Parliament do not spend all their time in Ottawa. They meet regularly once a year and for several months they work at the business of governing the country. Then they go back to their own homes, though they may be called back to Ottawa at any time if they are needed. For example, if there is danger of war, or if any other serious emergency arises, the members are called to meet in Ottawa at once.

But the business of the country must be looked after all the time. This is how it is done. After the election, the leader of the party which has the largest number of members elected to the House of Commons becomes the Prime Minister. He chooses a number of members from his party to assist him. This group is called the Cabinet. Sometimes it is called the Executive Council. *Executive* means *having the power to act.* The Cabinet has the power to carry out the laws which Parliament makes.

Each member of the Cabinet looks after one department. The Minister of Defence has control of the army, the navy, the air force, and all matters pertaining to the defence of Canada. The Minister of Trade and Commerce carries out the regulations about trade and commerce in Canada and between Canada and other countries. The Postmaster-General runs the postal system. The Minister of Transport looks after the regulations which affect railways, canals, and airways.

POLITICAL PARTIES

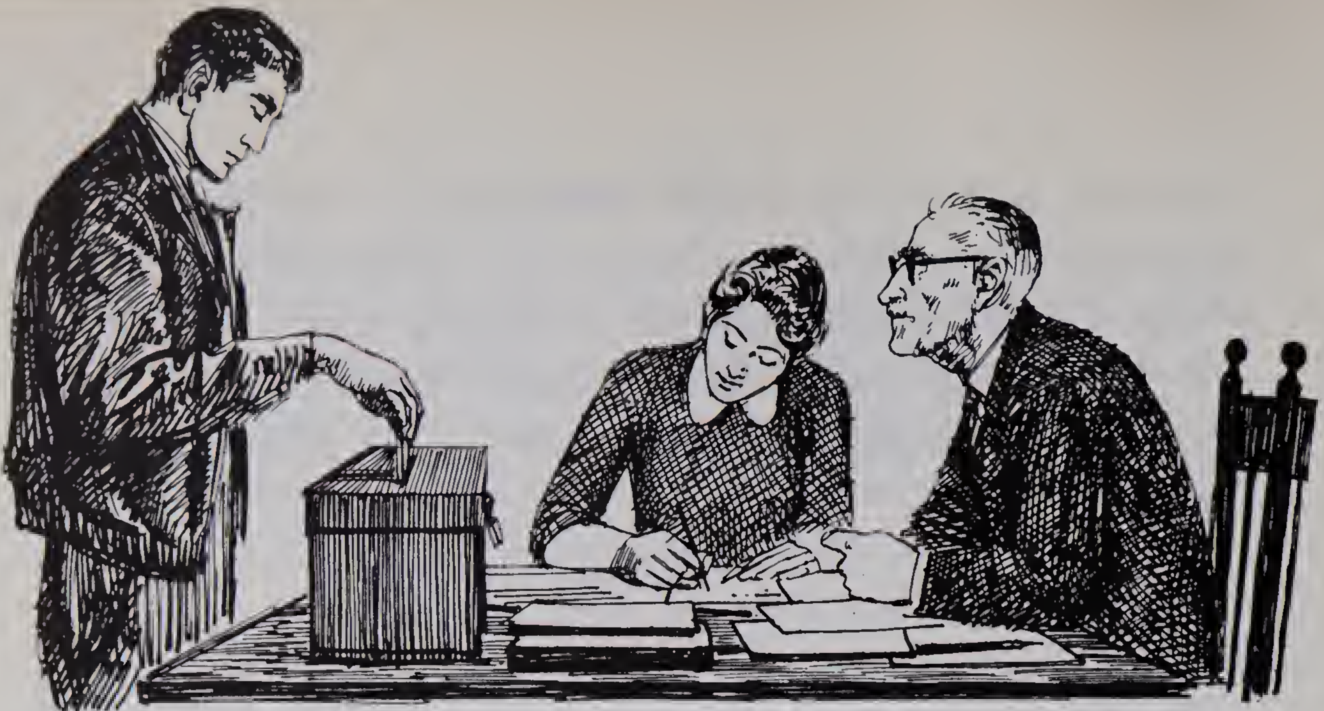
When a number of people share the same ideas about how the country should be governed, they form a political party. There are several political parties in Canada: the Liberals, the Progressive Conservatives, the New Democratic Party, the Social Credit and the Communist parties. The New Democratic Party, organized in 1961, succeeds the C.C.F., the Co-operative Commonwealth Federation.

When the time comes for an election, the members of each party decide which of their members they will select to run for Parliament. Meetings are held all over the country. Candidates make speeches telling what they will do if they are elected. Each party has some time on television and on the radio, when its best speakers urge everyone who is listening to vote for the party. Pictures of the candidates are put up on sign-boards. Pamphlets are printed and mailed to the voters. Each party does all it can to get as many votes as possible for its candidates.

VOTING

Every Canadian citizen over the age of twenty-one has the right to vote in Federal elections. A Canadian citizen is a person born in Canada, a British subject who has lived in Canada for a year and declares that he intends to remain here, or a person who has come from another country and has been naturalized according to the laws of Canada. To become Canadian citizens, newcomers must (1) have lived in Canada for five years; (2) be of sound mind and be able to speak and understand English or French; (3) make application to appear before a judge to prove that they are qualified to become Canadian citizens; (4) take the oath of allegiance to Canada and the Crown of the British Commonwealth of Nations. Provincial voting requirements vary.

It is only in this century that women have received the right to vote and to be elected to office. During the First World War, when women were working hard to help to defeat the enemy, many people became convinced that women should have a vote on the same terms as men. The right to vote in Federal elections and to run for Parliament was given to women in 1918. Some of the provinces had already agreed that women should have votes in provincial elections: Manitoba, Alberta, and Saskatchewan in 1916, British Columbia and Ontario in 1917. Nova Scotia followed in 1918, New Brunswick and the Yukon in 1919, Prince Edward Island in 1922 and Quebec in 1940. The women of Newfoundland received the vote in 1925.



The right to vote by secret ballot is the priceless heritage of the citizens of a democracy.

ELECTIONS

The first step in an election is to set the date. Then candidates are nominated by the various parties, and the election campaign is under way. Enumerators call at every house to find out who has the right to vote, and, from their lists, the voters' lists are made up. When election day comes the voters go to the polls and there all the citizens whose names are on the voters' list are given ballots with instructions about marking them. After the balloting is over, the returning officers count the votes and send the results in to headquarters. As the returns come in, radio and television stations broadcast the results.

THE PASSING OF A LAW

Let us examine what happens when a law is passed. Take, for example, the passing of the law to provide Family Allowances in 1944. The members of the Cabinet thought it would be a wise plan to pay to every family a sum of money to help to meet the cost of bringing up children. A member of the Cabinet drew up a bill which outlined how this could be done.

After the members of the Cabinet discussed the proposed bill and agreed upon it, it was presented to the House of Commons. There it was discussed very fully. Members who favoured it had an opportunity to tell why they did. Those who opposed it could say why. Those who thought it should be changed in some particulars had an opportunity to suggest changes.

Meanwhile all this discussion was reported to the people of Canada in the newspapers and over the radio. Citizens wrote to their representatives telling them what they thought should be done. Clubs and organizations passed resolutions stating what their members thought should be done. After a long discussion and careful examination the bill was passed by the House of Commons. Then it was sent to the Senate. Again it was discussed. After it was passed by the Senate, it was signed by the Governor-General. Finally it became law.

Once the bill was law, it became the duty of the Minister of Health and Public Welfare to carry it out. He established offices in various parts of Canada, engaged people to work in them, gathered the information that was needed, and organized a staff to pay out the Family Allowance cheques to families that were entitled to receive them.

RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT

We say that Canada has Responsible Government. Just what does that mean? Let us examine it.

Nations have found that it is not enough to have the privilege of electing the men and women who make their laws and manage their affairs. There must be some way of making the law-makers responsible to the voters so that the laws the voters want will be passed. That is why elections are held at least every five years. The members of Parliament have to answer to the voters at every election.

Then, too, the members of the Cabinet or Executive Council must not be given too much power. They must be responsible to the elected representatives of the people. It is for this reason that the Prime Minister and his Cabinet are always chosen from the party having the majority in the House of Commons. If the Prime Minister and his Cabinet lose the support of the majority of the members, if some bill which they propose is defeated, or if a vote of "lack of confidence" in them is passed, then the Prime Minister and his Cabinet must resign. If no other party is strong enough to form a government, there must be an election. Again the leader of the party which has the largest number of members elected becomes Prime Minister, and he selects his Cabinet from his party. Therefore the Prime Minister and his Cabinet are always responsible for their actions to the House of Commons, and through them to the voters.

Even so, if the Governor-General had the right to refuse to assent to a bill, the laws which the voters want might not be passed. At one time, the Governor-General in Canada was responsible to the British Government for the laws which were passed in Canada and he might refuse to sign a bill. For over a hundred years, however, no Governor-General has refused to give his assent to any bill passed by Parliament.

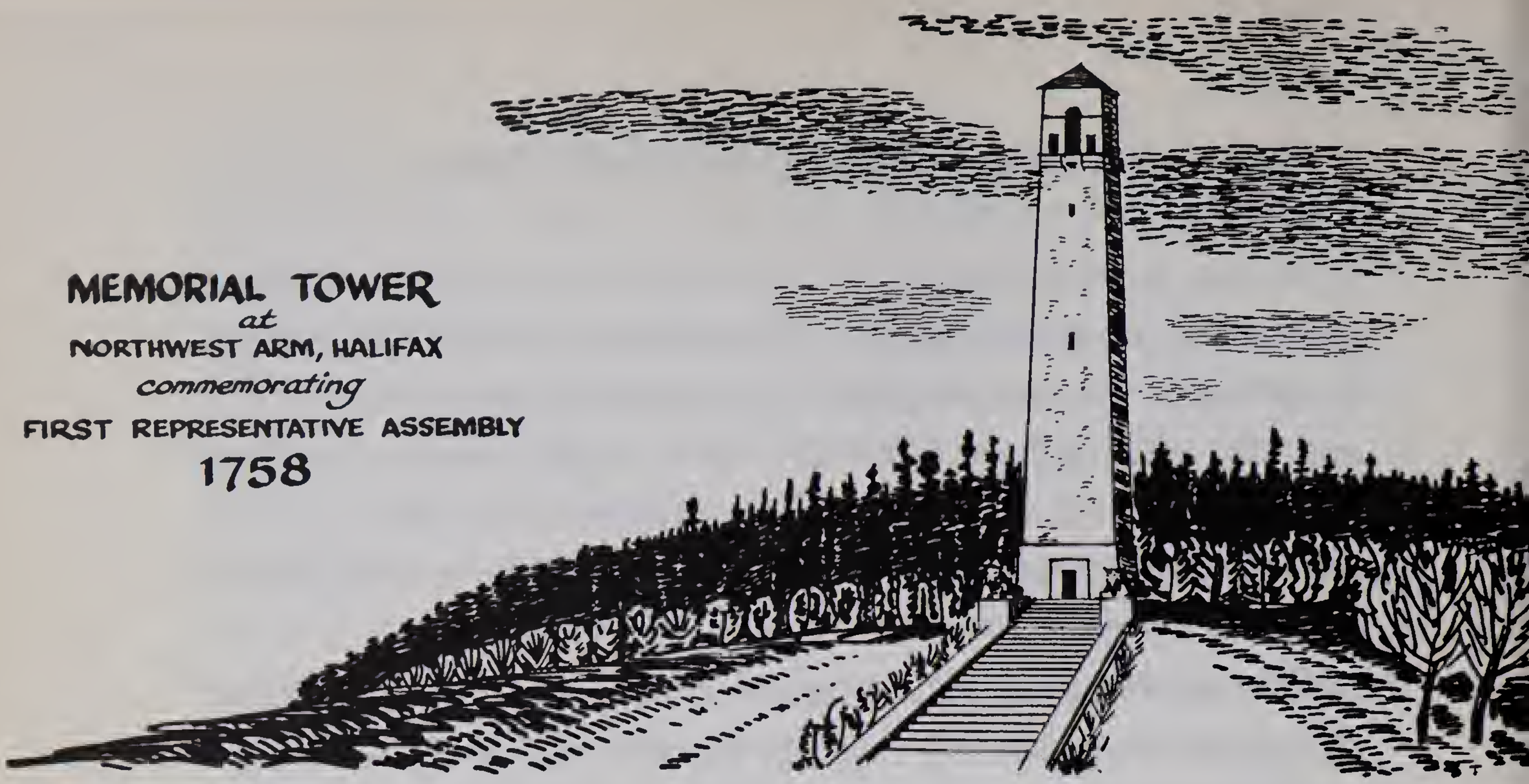
The two essential features of Responsible Government are: first, that the Prime Minister and his Cabinet are responsible to the representatives of the people; second, that the Governor-General, like the monarch in Britain, always acts on the advice of his Cabinet, or Executive Council, and always gives his assent to bills passed by the Parliament.

It is our responsibility as voters to choose the best men and women we can find to represent us in our Parliament in Ottawa, in our Legislative Assembly, in our Councils, and on our School Boards. We must keep ourselves informed about what our representatives are doing. They are the servants of the people because the people elect them to office.

The business of government is our business. We have the power to elect the representatives who make our laws and manage our affairs, and the power to vote against them if they do not look after the business of government as we believe they should. It is our duty to vote carefully and to see that the government of our country is well-managed by the people to whom we entrust it.

THE FIRST PARLIAMENTS

We have considered how we are governed to-day but this system of government was not developed in a few days. The first assemblies were made up of inexperienced men and the early governors thought that they and the men they chose to advise them should decide most matters. In fact, the governors were reluctant to call assemblies, preferring to do the governing themselves. The first assembly in what is now Canada was elected in Nova Scotia in 1758. The people who came out from England to Nova Scotia in 1749 had been promised that they would have the right to elect an assembly, but the governor put off calling one as long as he could. Upper and Lower Canada did not have assemblies until 1791, some years after the Loyalists had settled in Upper Canada. The British Government realized that the Loyalists who had been accustomed to sending representatives to assemblies to make laws for



MEMORIAL TOWER
at
NORTHWEST ARM, HALIFAX
commemorating
FIRST REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY
1758

their colonies would not be satisfied without the same privileges in their new homes.

The Constitutional Act of 1791 which divided Canada into two provinces, Upper and Lower Canada, decreed that each province was to have a governor sent out from Britain, an Executive Council, appointed by the governor, a Legislative Council, appointed by the governor, and a Legislative Assembly, elected by the people.

To-day the term Cabinet is usually used instead of Executive Council. The Senate in the Federal Parliament has taken the place of the Legislative Council. Ontario, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Manitoba, Prince Edward Island, and British Columbia all had Legislative Councils when they first established provincial governments, but all these provinces eventually abolished their Legislative Councils and now have only elected Legislative Assemblies and lieutenant-governors. Quebec is the only province which still has an appointed Legislative Council. The elected body in the Federal Parliament is now called the House of Commons. In some provinces the elected assembly is called the Provincial Parliament, in others it is called the Legislative Assembly.

16. "The Little Rebel"

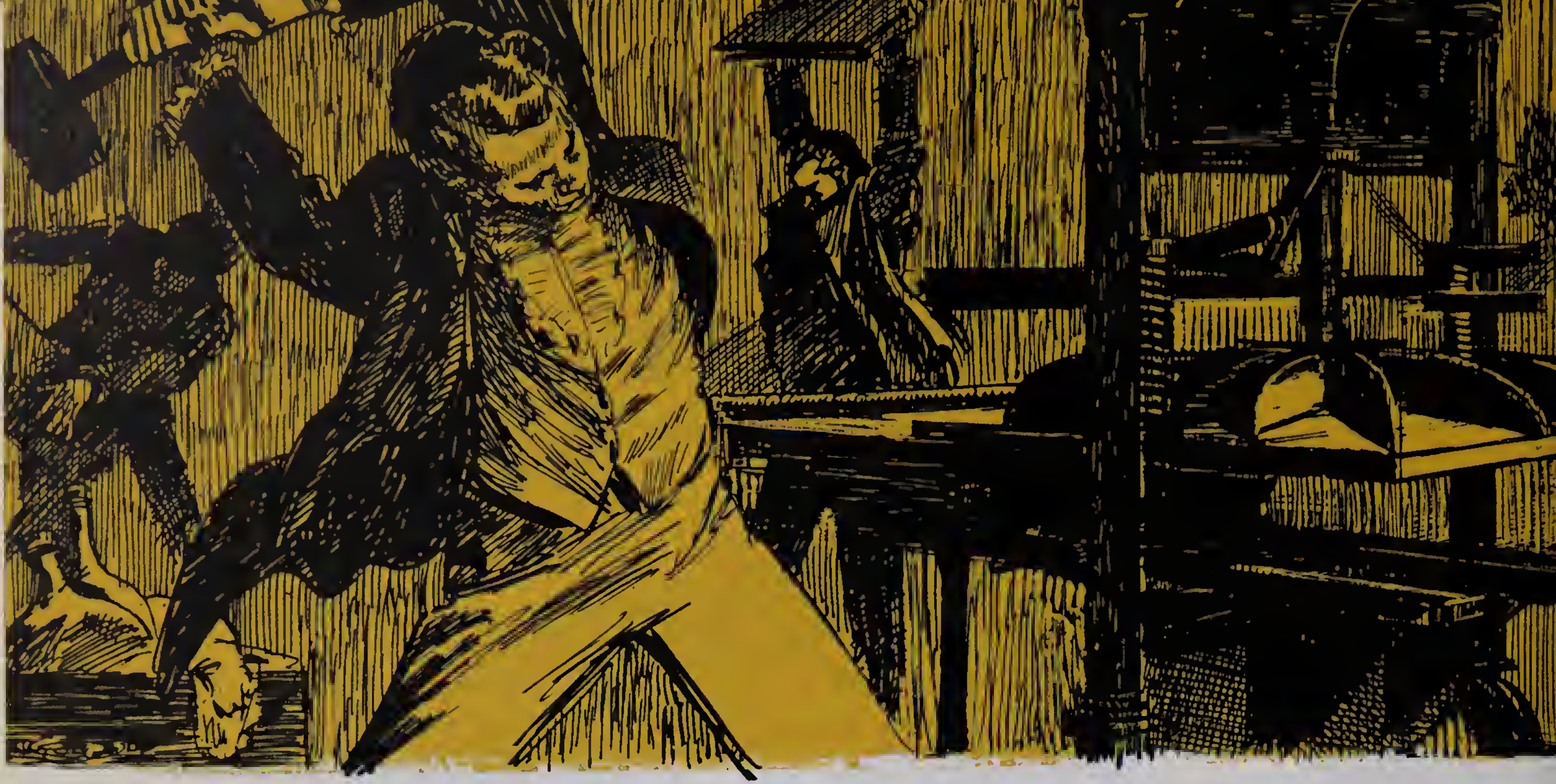
> "All we have of freedom, all we use or know —
> This our fathers bought for us long and long ago."
>
> Rudyard Kipling: *The Old Issue*

When the Constitutional Act of 1791 provided an elected Assembly, the people of Upper Canada and of Lower Canada were pleased. Now, they thought, they would have a voice in making the laws and managing the affairs of their provinces. It was not long, however, before they realized that the Legislative Council could block the bills passed by the Assembly, and that the Executive Council had complete control of appointments to office and of the spending of the money on improvements such as government buildings, roads and bridges. Before long there was discontent. Our free government was not won without a bitter struggle.

WILLIAM LYON MACKENZIE

One of the leaders of the struggle in Upper Canada was a fiery little Scotsman named William Lyon Mackenzie, who came to Canada in 1820. He had not been here long before he set up a newspaper, the *Colonial Advocate,* in York. In the columns of his paper he asked embarrassing questions. Who was making money out of the high postal rates? Why were public works so expensive? Why should it always be a clergyman of the Church of England who read the prayers at the opening of the Legislature? Why were good roads built in certain districts and not in others? How did some men get such large land grants?

Sometimes, in the newspaper, Mackenzie made bitter personal attacks upon public officials. Some young men



Young men wreck Mackenzie's printing shop in an attempt to keep him from publishing his political opinions. A model of this printing press can be seen in Mackenzie's home in Toronto, now a historical museum.

became so angry about these attacks that one day they broke into his printing office and smashed his press and threw the type into Toronto Bay. But their act backfired. Mackenzie had been having a hard time paying the expenses of his paper. Now he was able to sue the men who had destroyed his press and scattered his type, and the court awarded him enough money to make a fresh start.

CAUSES OF DISCONTENT

The settlers were not satisfied with the way the land was granted. Large tracts were granted to men who had no intention of settling on them. These speculators planned to hold the land, hoping that they could sell it for a high price when the land around it was settled. One section in every seven, according to the provisions of the Constitutional Act, was set aside to provide money for the support of the Church of England, and another section in every seven was held to provide support for the government. These Clergy Reserves and Crown Reserves remained unoccupied, separating settlers from their neighbours. Wild animals roaming in the unsettled sections often carried off sheep and poultry. Sometimes the bears and wolves attacked children.

To-day we depend upon our neighbours to help us in time of trouble, but in the early days settlers were much more dependent upon their neighbours. Until there were several families settled in a district there could not be good roads, or a school, or a church, or a blacksmith's shop.

In a pioneer country, roads by which the settlers can take their produce to market are of the utmost importance. It was the Executive Council that decided where the new roads and bridges should be built. Sometimes the members of the Council had the roads placed where they would be useful to their friends and relatives instead of where the roads were most needed.

Most of the public offices, such as the positions of postmaster, tax-collector, judge, and sheriff, were given to friends and relatives of members of the Executive Council. These men may have been capable of filling these offices properly, but the other people in the province thought it was not fair that all the government jobs should be given to this one group. They began to call the members of the Council and their friends the "Family Compact".

More and more people began to complain about the government. When they met in shops or taverns, when they visited their neighbours to help with the barn-raising or the corn-husking, they talked about their grievances, and about what should be done to improve the situation.

REFORMERS AND TORIES

The group that wanted conditions changed called themselves Reformers. Even when the Reformers succeeded in getting a majority in the Legislative Assembly, they found they could not accomplish very much. Unless a bill was passed by both the Legislative Council and the Legislative Assembly and signed by the governor it did not become law. If the Legislative Council did not agree to pass the bill, or if the governor would not sign it, there was nothing the Legislative Assembly could do about it.

The Reformers did not see why any one group should be as powerful as the Family Compact. There were some men of wealth and property, such as Dr. William Baldwin and his son Robert, and men of education, such as Egerton Ryerson, among the Reformers. The majority of the people who objected to rule by the Family Compact, however, were newcomers from Great Britain or from the United States, and the settlers in the areas remote from the larger towns. The farmers of the backwoods complained that the Family Compact group did not understand their problems and did not care about improving conditions in the rural areas.

The governor in those days was responsible only to the British Colonial Office. He was not obliged to accept the decisions of either his Legislative Council or of the Legislative Assembly, or to accept the advice of the Executive Council. Since he did not know much about the affairs of the province when he arrived, he usually depended on advice from the Executive Council and the Legislative Council, which were made up of men chosen by his predecessor. They were usually well-to-do men, lawyers, clergymen of the Church of England, prosperous merchants, or members of the families of the officers of the Loyalist regiments who had stayed in Canada.

The members of the Councils believed that only they and the officials who had come out from Britain knew how to rule wisely. Many of them were Loyalists or the sons of Loyalists who could never forget that they had lost their homes south of the border because of their loyalty to Britain. Many of them believed that the privilege of governing and holding office was the just reward for their sacrifices. They considered themselves responsible for upholding British ideas and traditions. In Britain in those days governing was in the hands of the upper class, and they thought it should be the same in Canada. It was many years before the British working-man had a vote. Canadians who agreed that the government should be in the hands of the governor and the privileged class were called Tories.

The two outstanding leaders of the Tories were John Beverley Robinson, a very able lawyer, who later became Chief Justice, and Archdeacon John Strachan, who had come out to head a school for the sons of some of the Family Compact members. Strachan soon became a member of the Legislative and Executive Councils where he took a strong stand defending the privileges of the Church of England. He insisted that the Church of England should have all the revenues from the Clergy Reserves. Since most of the members of the Family Compact were members of the Church of England it seemed only right to them that it should enjoy special privileges as it did in Britain. Dr. Egerton Ryerson, a young Methodist preacher, published a pamphlet objecting to the special privileges of the Church of England, its monopoly of the revenues from the Clergy Reserves, and the fact that only its clergy could perform marriage ceremonies.

MACKENZIE ELECTED TO THE ASSEMBLY

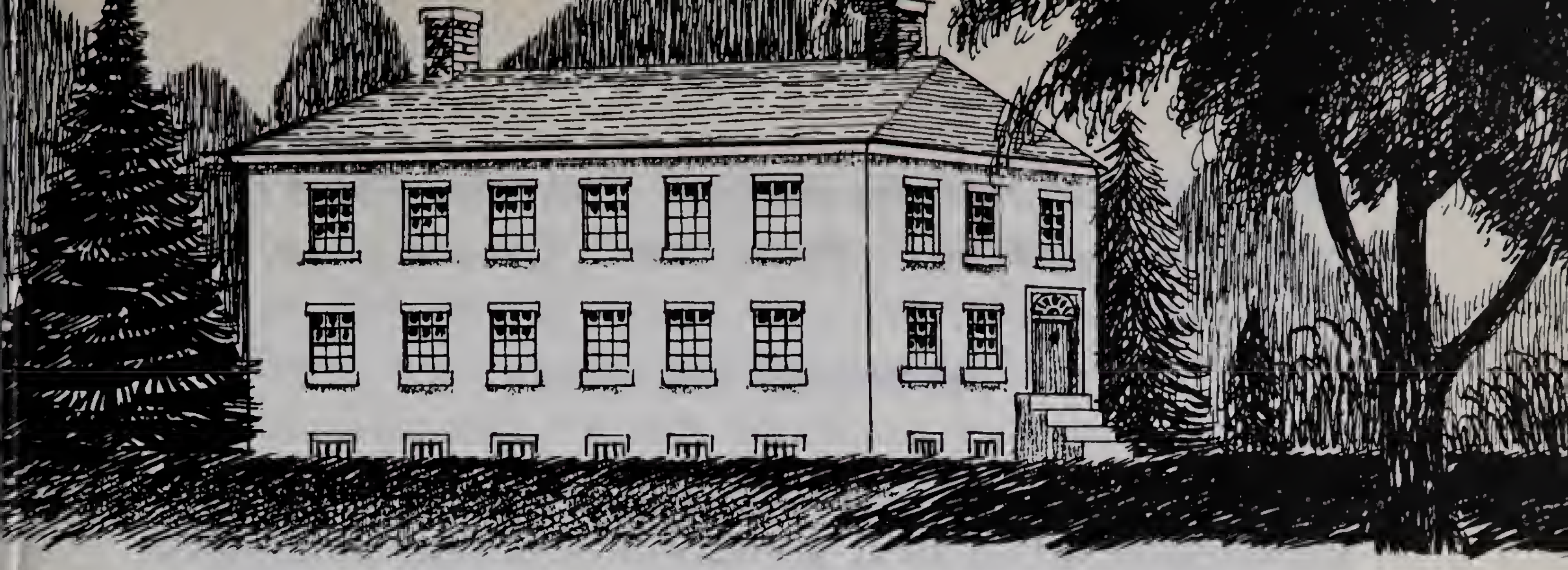
The Reformers thought that William Lyon Mackenzie, who wrote so boldly about the need for change, would be a good man to speak for them in the Assembly. Accordingly, they elected him to represent the town of York. He continued to criticize the Family Compact in his newspaper, whereupon the Family Compact expelled him from the Assembly. Five times he was expelled and five times re-elected. When in 1834 York became the city of Toronto, Mackenzie was elected its first mayor. It is clear that the majority of the people of Toronto approved of what he said and did.

It was not wise of the Family Compact group to refuse to allow Mackenzie to stay in the Assembly. It is true that he said bitter things about them in the *Colonial Advocate,* but they said just as bitter things about him. By persecuting him they made him a hero. It was obvious that he was the man the people of York wanted as their representative in the Assembly. Mackenzie went to England and stated his case. Since there was no doubt that he had been treated unfairly, the men who had been responsible for expelling him from the Assembly were dismissed from office.

When Mackenzie returned to Canada, naturally he was more opposed than ever to the group which had treated him unfairly. Shortly after his return, he visited the United States and he thought that conditions there were much better than in Canada. Roads were better, the country more settled, manufacturing and trade increasing. He forgot that the eastern American states had been settled long before any settlers came to Upper Canada, and he gave all the credit for better conditions there to the American form of government where officials were elected instead of appointed.

THE REFORMERS DID NOT ALL AGREE WITH MACKENZIE

Many of the Reformers did not agree that the answer to their problems was to have their government more like



Dr. William Baldwin's home, Spadina, where he lived and had his school. Parents paid a fee of eight guineas and a cord of wood a year for each boy.

that of the United States. The outstanding man among the moderate Reformers was Robert Baldwin, a member of a distinguished family in York. His father, Dr. William Baldwin, was not only a doctor; he was also a lawyer and the owner of a private school for boys in York. Dr. Baldwin built a large home on the outskirts of Toronto which he called Spadina, and Toronto's Spadina Avenue follows the road which led to it. Dr. Baldwin, though well-to-do and active in the Church of England, was not associated with the Family Compact. He favoured reform and was elected several times to the Legislative Assembly where he represented the people who did not believe that the councils should have so much power. It was natural that his son Robert, growing up in a Reformer household, should also became a Reformer.

Robert Baldwin believed that many changes should be made in Canada, but, when Mackenzie's talk began to border on treason and rebellion, he gave him no more support. Baldwin did not agree that the solution of Upper Canada's problems lay in having the Executive and Legislative Councils elected. He thought that the Executive Council should be made responsible to the people. The Cabinet in England was chosen from the party having the majority in the House of Commons and when that party was defeated a new Cabinet was appointed from the party which won the election. As we have seen in the previous chapter, this is the system in Canada to-day.

SIR FRANCIS BOND HEAD

In 1834 under Mackenzie's leadership the Reformers drew up a report listing their grievances. As they now had a majority in the Assembly they passed the report and printed two thousand copies of it. They sent copies to the Colonial Secretary and to each member of the Parliament of Great Britain. As a result the governor was recalled and a new governor, Sir Francis Bond Head, was sent out. Sir Francis had no experience in government; in fact, he was very much surprised that he had been chosen. Other people were surprised, too. There is a story that the intention had been to send his cousin, Sir Edmund Head, but the Colonial Secretary called on "the wrong Head" to become governor of Canada.

Sir Francis made a good start by asking Robert Baldwin and two other Reformers to enter the Executive Council. This looked promising, but he did not bother to consult the Council, so they all, both Tories and Reformers, protested. Sir Francis replied that he was responsible only to the Colonial Office and did not have to consult the Council unless he thought he needed their advice. Since none of the members of the Council could agree with him, they all resigned. He managed to find men who would form a new Council but the Assembly passed a vote declaring that its members had no confidence in the new Council.

THE REFORMERS LOSE THE ELECTION OF 1836

In the election of 1836 Sir Francis Bond Head took an active part, as if he were a candidate for election. He asked voters, "Are you for me or for the House of Assembly?" He did everything he could to make the people believe that the Reformers were disloyal and that unless the Tories were elected Canada would break away from Britain. This was not true, since many of the Reformers, such as Dr. William Baldwin and his son Robert, were as loyal to Britain as any of the Tories. The Governor's attitude, however, did drive some of the extremists among the Reformers to believe that the only answer to their problems was in rebellion.

The Reformers were overwhelmingly defeated in the elections. Many people had been influenced by Sir Francis Bond Head's violent campaign, but there was another factor that helped to defeat them. Dr. Egerton Ryerson, the leader of the Methodists, had quarrelled with Mackenzie and had given his support to the Tories. Mackenzie was defeated in York. Only one of the leaders of the Reform party won his election.

After this, Mackenzie's criticisms of the Family Compact became more and more violent. When he demanded, "Will Canadians declare their independence and take up their muskets?" some of the people who had supported him decided he was going too far. They wanted reforms, but they believed that they should continue to work for them by peaceful means and not by force. These men were right. When Mackenzie led his followers in rebellion, he made a tragic mistake.

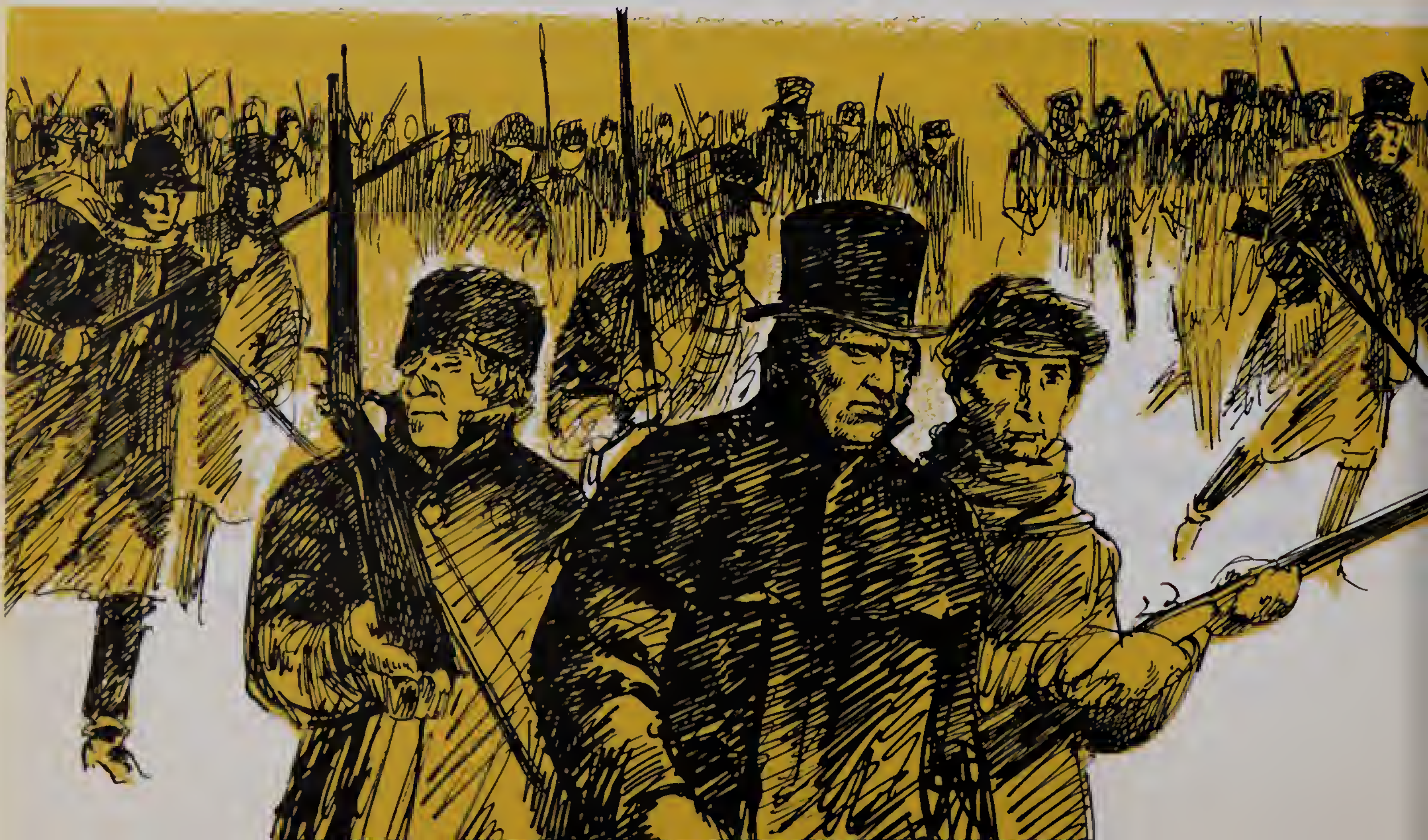
REBELLION

The rebellion was not well planned. Many of the Reformers, though they thought change was needed, were not prepared to rebel against the government or to ally themselves with the Americans as Mackenzie suggested. When the time came to fight, Mackenzie did not have as many supporters as he had expected.

Everything went wrong with the plans for action. The rebels had set December 7th as the date for their uprising. But when they learned that an order had been issued to arrest Mackenzie, they realized that the government knew of their plans. Word was sent out for their men to come at once. They began to gather north of Toronto, ready to march on the city, hoping to capture the City Hall and the guns and ammunition which were stored there. On the night of December 4th, even though many of the supporters they expected had not been able to get there in time, the rebels attempted to stop people from going in or out of the city. One man was killed on each side.

The next night Mackenzie led about eight hundred men down Yonge Street to take the city. When they reached Maitland Street they were fired on by a small force of twenty-seven men who had been stationed there. As soon as these men fired one volley they turned and fled back to the city. The rebels began to return their fire, but when

The rebels had no time to drill or organize their attack. Nevertheless Mackenzie set out boldly leading his men down Yonge Street towards City Hall in the hope of capturing arms and ammunition there for his forces.



the men in front lay down to shoot, and the ones behind them kneeled down, the rebels in the rear thought that their comrades had all been killed or wounded, so they, too, turned and fled. It was not a very heroic encounter, with both sides running away from each other. After their headlong retreat the rebels gathered at Montgomery's Tavern on north Yonge Street. That was Tuesday. On Thursday troops marched out from Toronto and after a short struggle completely scattered the rebels. Those who were captured were put in prison. Two were tried for treason and executed. Although they had been foolish to take up arms against the government, they were not wicked men. They believed they were fighting for their rights but they paid for their mistake with their lives.

Though a reward of £1,000 was offered to anyone who captured Mackenzie, he succeeded in escaping to the United States, hiding in barns and haystacks by day and travelling by night, sometimes fording icy streams barefoot. Years later he said that after crossing a stream, "the frozen sand seemed warm beneath my feet".

In the spring of 1838 Mackenzie tried to set up a provisional government on Navy Island in the Niagara River. He enlisted the support of some American adventurers who were attracted by the idea of capturing the Government of Canada. As the American Government did not want to get into any dispute with Great Britain, Mackenzie was sent to jail there for stirring up trouble against Canada while living in the United States. In 1849 when the Canadian Government permitted those who had taken part in the rebellion to return to Canada, he came back to Toronto, and was once more elected to the Legislature.

William Lyon Mackenzie was a man of rash and excitable temperament. His views and methods were not those of a great statesman, but he was honest in his opinions and fearless in expressing them. He fought against grave abuses in the government of Upper Canada, and his rebellion served to draw attention forcibly to those abuses. The very fact that in 1837, the first year of the reign of the young Queen Victoria, there should have been an armed rebellion in Canada shocked public opinion in Great Britain, and roused the British Government to make a serious effort to improve the situation. It showed clearly that the people of Canada must be given a greater voice in the control of their own affairs. That was what Mackenzie, in his rash and often misguided way, had been trying to achieve.

Although the rebellion was put down, it served its purpose. The British Government sent Lord Durham to Canada to investigate conditions.

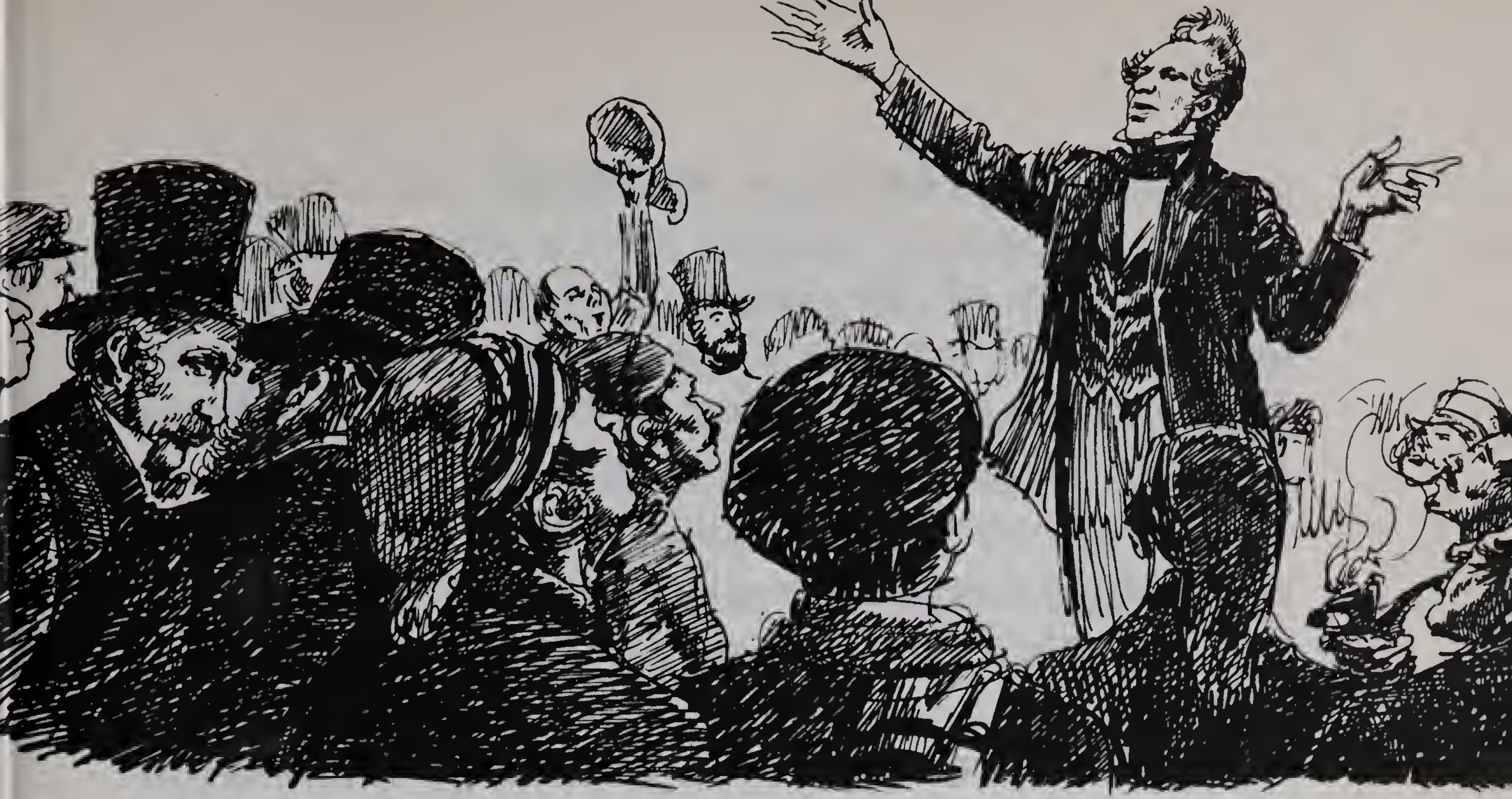
Now let us see what was happening in the other provinces at this time, for Upper Canada was not the only province in which the people were dissatisfied with the government. There was discontent also in Lower Canada and in Nova Scotia.

17. The Silver-Tongued Orator

> "His tongue
> Dropped manna, and could make the worse appear
> The better reason."
>
> JOHN MILTON: *Paradise Lost*

LOUIS JOSEPH PAPINEAU

In Lower Canada the rebellion was more serious than in Upper Canada, because it had the support of most of the French-speaking people. The leader was a seignior, Louis Joseph Papineau. His father had helped Carleton to defend Quebec against the Americans, and he himself



Louis Joseph Papineau urges the French Canadians to support his party in the Assembly and demand redress of their grievances.

had been an officer of the British army during the war of 1812-14. When he was only twenty-six, he was elected to the Assembly and three years later, in 1815, he became Speaker, or Chairman, of the Assembly, a position he held for over twenty years. He was an earnest student of law and of history, and had stated publicly that British rule had brought great benefits to Canada. Unfortunately a bill was introduced in the British Parliament to unite Upper and Lower Canada, a bill which seemed to aim at subordinating the French in Lower Canada to the British. Papineau was one of the men sent to England to protest against it. The bill was not passed, but the damage was done, for it aroused resentment and suspicion in the minds of the French-speaking Canadians.

Papineau was a born leader of men. He was tall and handsome, and so able a speaker that one of his school friends wrote of him, "Never within the memory of teacher or student had a voice so eloquent filled the halls of the seminary of Quebec." He became known as the "tribune of the people" because of his championship of the rights of the French Canadians.

The majority of the people of Lower Canada were descendants of the early French settlers. They spoke the French language; only a few of them could speak any English. When the British took control they sent an English governor and English officials to manage the affairs of the colony. It is difficult for people to get along together when they do not understand each other's language.

The English-speaking group was small but powerful. It consisted chiefly of business men, who were eager to establish mills and factories, and to build new roads, bridges, and canals. Though they realized that these improvements would make the taxes higher, they believed that business would improve so much that it would not be difficult to pay the taxes. They wanted to encourage settlers to come from the British Isles. They believed that British ideas and customs should prevail and that the French-speaking groups would accept them. They declared that the English language should be the official language, even though the majority of the people in the province did not speak it or understand it. Also, almost all the English-speaking group were Protestants, while the French-speaking group were Roman Catholics.

French families had lived in Lower Canada for generations. They resented the English newcomers. The French did not want any more strangers coming in to the country. Most of them were farmers, who loved their own farms and believed they should keep the land of their colony for their children and their grandchildren. They were not willing to pay taxes for new roads and bridges and canals. They did not want a new way of life with mills and factories. They wanted to be left alone to live as their fathers and grandfathers had lived, to speak the French language, and to support the Roman Catholic Church.

Naturally the French-speaking group, since there were so many more of them, always had the majority in the Legislative Assembly. But since the governor appointed the members of the Executive and Legislative Councils, the majority in these councils belonged to the English-speaking group. As long as the Legislative Council could block any law the Legislative Assembly proposed, the French-speaking group could not pass any law unless the English-speaking group agreed to it.

The group of English-speaking business men who made up the Executive and Legislative Councils became known as the *Château Clique*. "Château" is a French word meaning castle. "Clique" means set or group. The governor lived in the Château St. Louis, and the Château Clique was the group he entertained there, the group he called upon to help him govern the country.

In some respects, the Château Clique in Lower Canada and the Family Compact in Upper Canada were alike. They both controlled the Executive and Legislative Councils. They both believed that they, and they alone, were fitted to govern the country.

THE RISING STORM

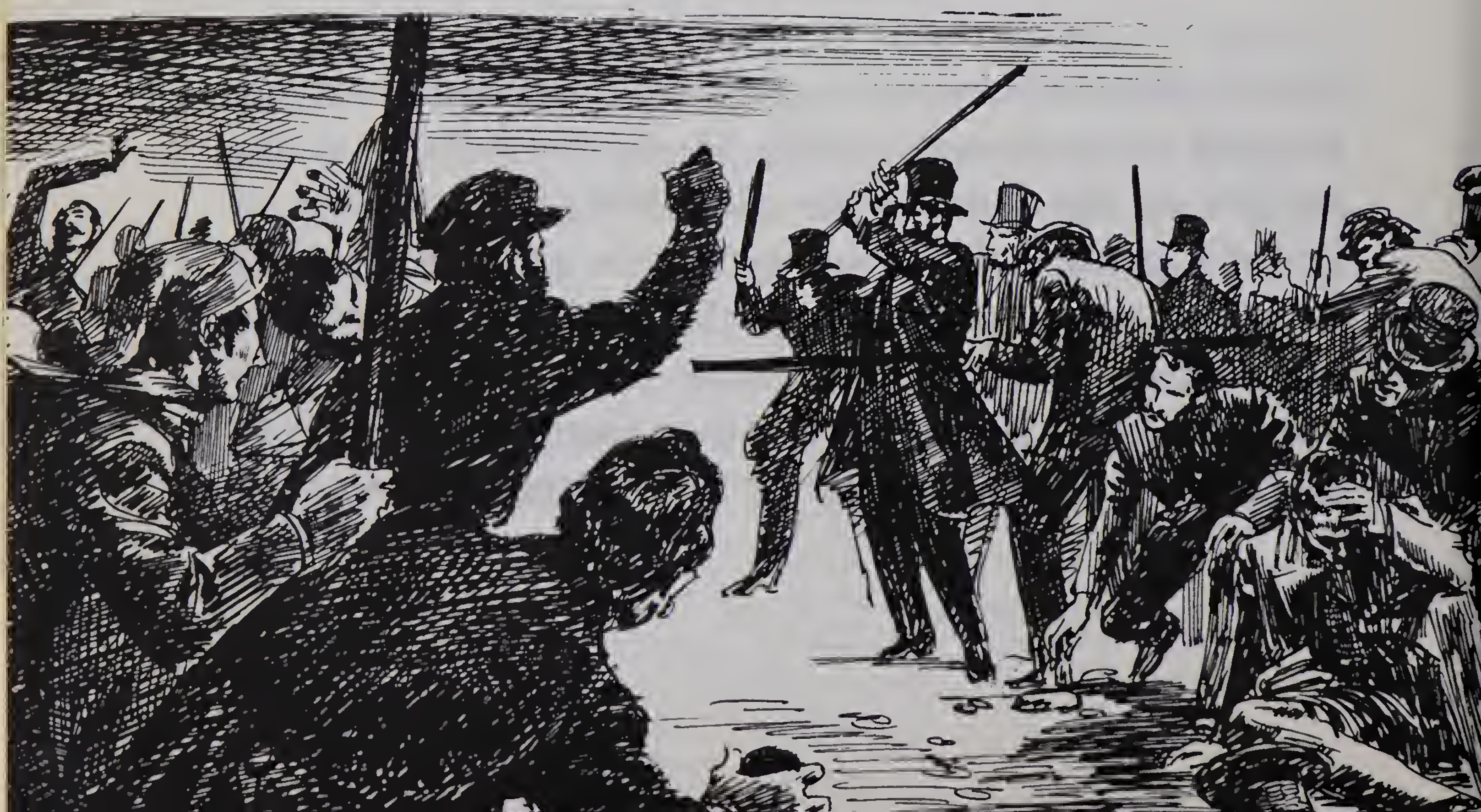
The Legislative Assembly had one powerful weapon. It could refuse to vote money to pay the salaries of the officials of the government. In 1834 the Assembly of Lower Canada, led by Papineau, drew up a statement of its grievances and sent it to the King. When no attention was paid to their protest, Papineau convinced most of the members of the Assembly that they should refuse to vote any money for the salaries of government officials. In

1836 the British Parliament told the governor of Lower Canada to pay money out of the treasury whether the Assembly voted it or not.

This action was almost equivalent to abolishing the constitution of Lower Canada. Up to this point Papineau and his supporters had carried on their agitation in accordance with the law of the land. Now they began to talk seriously of violent measures. "The time has come," exclaimed Wolfred Nelson, "to melt our spoons into bullets." Papineau himself did not at the time favour open rebellion. In fact it is doubtful if he was at any time in favour of the use of force, but he was influenced by some of his younger and more reckless followers.

In the autumn of 1837 the Sons of Liberty, as the younger group of the Reformers called themselves, clashed in a street fight with members of the Doric Club, an organization formed by the young men of the leading English and Scottish families in Montreal. Thoughtful people were alarmed by this street rioting. The clergy were anxious to keep peace and one of the priests went to Papineau to advise him, since his presence appeared to be the cause of disorder, to leave the city for a while.

Young men of opposing factions, the Sons of Liberty and the members of the Doric Club, come to blows in the streets of Montreal. Street fights were not uncommon in those days, for the city had no police to maintain order.



Papineau accepted the advice. Unfortunately, some of the British authorities, assuming that he had gone out into the country to stir the people of the villages to revolt, issued an order for his arrest and warrants for the arrest of his followers.

REBELLION

As soon as the news of these warrants got around, the habitants began to gather to defend their leaders. Groups of rebels took up positions at St. Denis, St. Charles, and St. Eustache but they were all forced to surrender to the government militia. There was more actual fighting than there had been in Upper Canada, but the result was the same. The rebellion was put down, but not before there had been enough blood shed to create great bitterness between the French-speaking Canadians and the governing group.

As in Upper Canada, there were many who wanted reform but were not in favour of taking up arms to get it. Only a small number actually took part in the fighting. From the beginning the Roman Catholic Church disapproved of the rebellion.

Papineau, like Mackenzie, escaped to the United States, where he also tried without success to secure support. When he failed he went to France, where he remained until the Government of Canada passed an act permitting those who had taken part in the rebellion to return to Canada. Like Mackenzie, he was elected to the Legislative Assembly again. But neither William Lyon Mackenzie nor Louis Joseph Papineau played an important part in the new Legislative Assembly after his return. Their followers respected them, however, for the sacrifices they had made, and history acknowledges that they fought to preserve the rights of free citizens in a free country. They made their contribution to the story of Canada by forcing the British Government to realize that something must be done to remedy the conditions which had driven these men to take up arms. But, by this time, the leadership of the Reform party had passed to other hands.

Shortly before his death, Papineau made a memorable defence of his career in a speech in Montreal. "You will believe me, I trust," he said, "when I say to you, I love my country . . . Opinions outside may differ. But looking into my heart and mind in all sincerity, I feel I can say that I have loved her as she should be loved. The sentiment of love of my country I imbibed from the breasts of my nurse—my saintly mother. The brief phrase in which it is best expressed, 'my country first', I learned to lisp at my father's knee."

18. Joseph Howe in Nova Scotia

> "There is one thing better than good government, and that is government in which all the people have a part."
>
> WALTER HINES PAGE: *Life and Letters*

THE RULING GROUP IN NOVA SCOTIA

There was discontent in Nova Scotia about the way in which the Council kept all the power in its own hands. Halifax was the only large town in the province. It was a garrison town, with troops of soldiers stationed there; it was also headquarters of the British fleet in the North Atlantic. Many retired army and navy officers made their homes there. Officers in the army and the navy are accustomed to obeying their superior officers and giving commands to those under them—commands which they expect to be obeyed without questions or discussion. The retired officers living in Halifax did not have much respect for assemblies elected by the people.

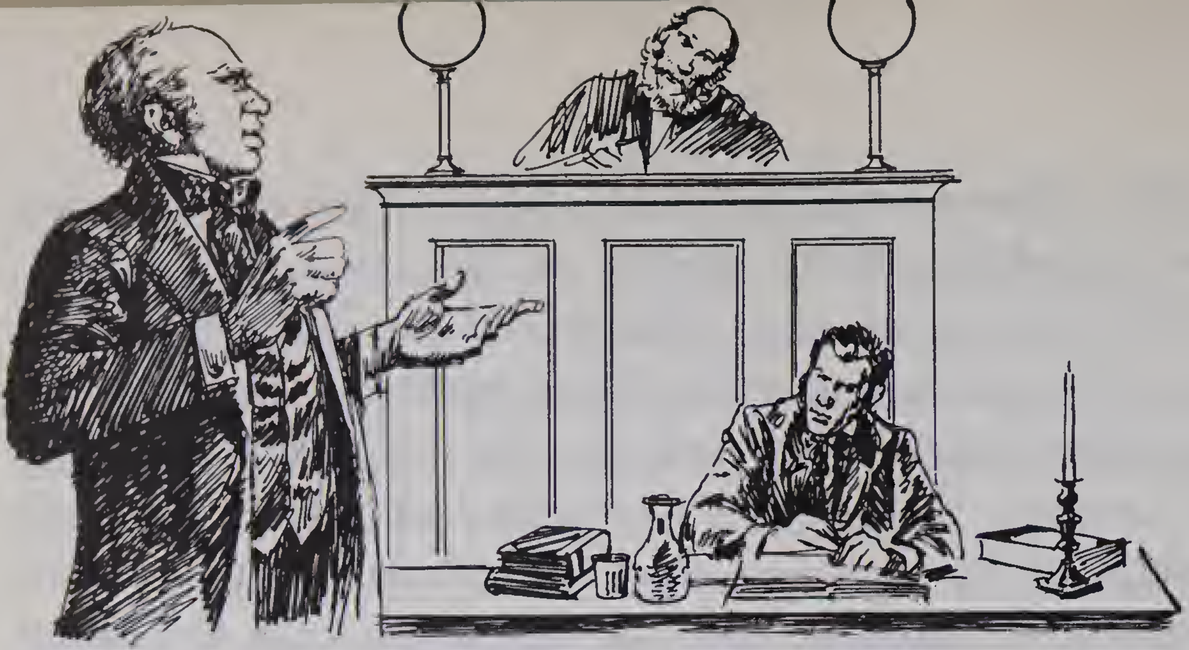
With the government officials and the leading business men, these army and navy officers made up a group whose members honestly believed that they should control the government. Considering themselves superior to the other people of the province, they formed an exclusive social group which imitated the manners of the lords and ladies of England. Joseph Howe, who became the leader of the Reformers in Nova Scotia, said bitterly, "They have scorned me at their feasts and they have insulted me at their funerals."

JOSEPH HOWE

Joseph Howe was the son of a United Empire Loyalist and was intensely loyal to Great Britain. One of the things that angered him most about the governing group in Nova Scotia was that its members talked as if they were the only people who were loyal to Britain. They seemed to think that anyone who wanted any change or reform was disloyal.

In his work as editor of the *Nova Scotian,* Howe travelled the length and breadth of Nova Scotia. He was a warm-hearted, genial person who made friends easily and kept them long. He loved his native province with great devotion. In his speeches and his newspaper he constantly drew attention to the beauty and resources of Nova Scotia. "Boys," he once said to an audience, "brag about your country."

Joseph Howe spoke out boldly in favour of reforms. He objected to the fact that in Nova Scotia the Executive and Legislative Councils were united into one and that they held their meetings in secret. He demanded better opportunities for education for the young people of the



Joseph Howe spoke so eloquently in his own defence that his pleas brought tears to the eyes of some of the jurors.

province. He also criticized the special privileges enjoyed by the Church of England.

Howe was sued for libel in 1835, when a letter in his paper contained a bitter attack on some of the officials, who might be called the Family Compact of Nova Scotia. Howe had not written the letter, but, as editor of the paper, he took full responsibility for it. Though the lawyers advised him that he would probably be found guilty, he determined to fight the case. For two weeks he studied the law of libel, and when the day of the trial came he defended himself eloquently in a speech that lasted over six hours. Not only was he declared not guilty of libel; he was carried home in triumph on the shoulders of the crowd. The next year he was elected to the Assembly with a large majority and was soon recognized as the leader of the Reform party.

In the Assembly Howe proposed certain resolutions stating the grievances of the people of Nova Scotia against the government. His protest received more attention than the protests of Mackenzie in Upper Canada or of Papineau in Lower Canada. Some changes were made by the British Government, but Howe and his supporters thought that many more were needed. Howe asked only for "the rights of Englishmen". There was no talk of rebellion in

Nova Scotia. Later when the struggle was over Howe wrote,

> "The blood of no brother, in civil strife poured,
> In this hour of rejoicing encumbers our souls!
> The frontier's the place for the patriot's sword,
> And cursed is the weapon that faction controls!"

He liked a good joke. Once when a mob of men who disagreed with his views gathered at his door he came out and talked to the trouble-makers until they forgot their anger. Then he called, "And now, boys, if any of you has a stick, just leave it in my porch as a keepsake." The crowd roared with laughter and threw their sticks toward his porch as he suggested, leaving him a stock of fuel and going away disarmed and in good humour.

HOWE'S FOUR OPEN LETTERS

Shortly after Lord Durham presented his report to the British Parliament Howe wrote four letters to the Colonial Secretary. He published these letters in his newspaper and sent them to other papers for publication. In them he set forth the arguments for making the executive responsible to the elected Assembly, just as the Cabinet in Great Britain is responsible to the House of Commons. "Was responsible government withheld," he asked, "from a suspicion of disloyalty? Colonial loyalty would bear examination. What are the dangers? Is Her Majesty in mortal terror because the citizens of London govern themselves? Does anyone imagine the Lord Mayor of London declaring war upon France? Would we do it in Canada?" These letters probably did as much as Lord Durham's report to convince those who read them that Responsible Government was possible for the colonies.

19. The Turning-Point — The Great Report

"For what avail the plough or sail,
Or land or life, if freedom fail?"
Ralph Waldo Emerson: *Boston*

LORD DURHAM COMES TO INVESTIGATE

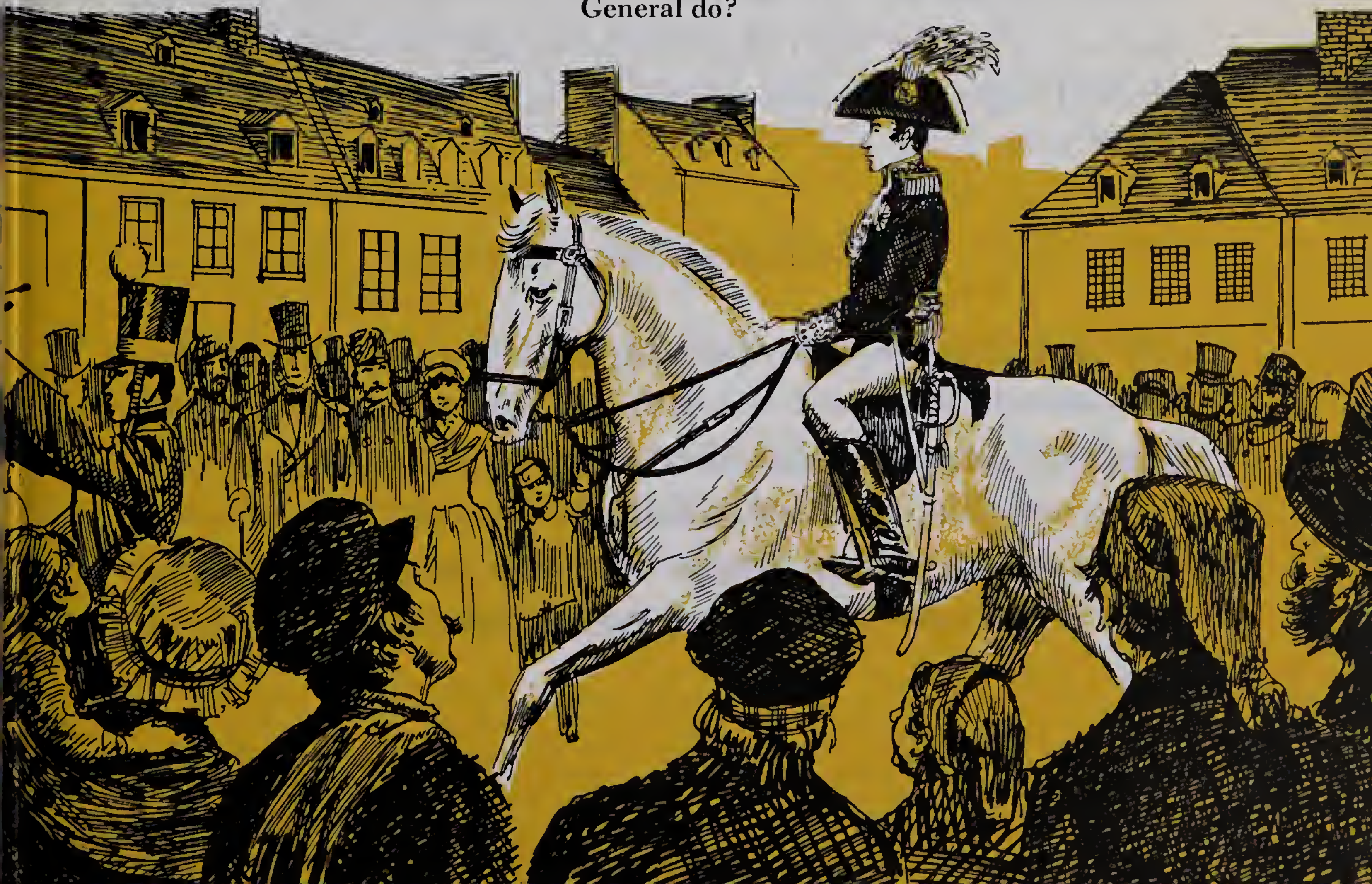
The rebellions in Upper and Lower Canada and the agitation for reform in Nova Scotia made the British Government realize that something must be done to improve conditions in British North America. To discover what was causing the trouble and to determine what should be done to set affairs right, a very able man, Lord Durham, was appointed Governor-General of British North America, and Lord High Commissioner for Her Majesty Queen Victoria.

Lord Durham had already attained a distinguished position in British politics. Though he came from a rich and powerful family, he had a genuine respect for the common people and a regard for their welfare. His colleagues, however, found him difficult to work with. They called him "Radical Jack" because he insisted that the common people should have some voice in governing the country. In 1835 they sent him as ambassador to Russia to get him out of the way. When he returned to England, they suggested that he should be the one to inquire into conditions in Canada. He was not very eager to accept the task, but when the young Queen herself appealed to him he agreed to undertake it.

It was a good appointment. Durham's respect for the rights of the common people made it certain that he would deal sympathetically with the Canadian Reformers. The Family Compact members could not fail to be impressed by a man of his high position. He was a man of great ability, who quickly grasped the problem of government in Canada and was able to devise remedies for the difficulties of the times.

Lord Durham came to Canada with his whole family, twenty-two aides, secretaries, and servants, and his own band. It took two days to unload his luggage. Dressed in splendid uniform, mounted on a spectacular white horse, he rode through the streets of Quebec to the Château St. Louis. He gave magnificent parties, at which servants dressed in handsome livery served his guests on gold and silver plates. To these festivities he invited people from both political groups. This was something new. Previous governors had entertained only the Château Clique or the Family Compact. The people of Canada were pleased that the British Government had sent out so distinguished a nobleman to investigate their problems. The Reformers were especially pleased when they learned that he wanted to hear the opinions of people of all classes.

As Lord Durham rode in splendour through the streets of Quebec to the Château St. Louis, the citizens stood quietly in the streets. Many of their friends and relatives had taken part in the rebellion which had been put down very harshly by the British soldiers. What would the new Governor-General do?



Lord Durham worked very hard. He travelled all over the country, interviewing people everywhere and discussing the situation with them. When he talked to Robert Baldwin, he considered Baldwin's ideas so sensible that he asked him to write a letter outlining them.

Durham agreed with Baldwin that the best answer to the problems in Canada would be to establish a system as nearly like that of Great Britain as possible. The Executive Council, they agreed, should be responsible to the Legislative Assembly, just as the British Cabinet is responsible to the Parliament of Great Britain. This could be brought about if the Executive Council was chosen from the party in the majority in the Legislative Assembly, and resigned if its party no longer formed a majority there. There were many people both in Britain and in Canada who thought that it would never be possible to adopt that system in a colony, for they were afraid that the Assembly might pass laws which would not be approved by the Colonial Office in Britain. However, Lord Durham and Baldwin found a way out of that difficulty. They agreed that there should be some matters, such as trade with other countries, foreign affairs, and land grants, which should be left to the Colonial Office, but that all matters affecting the colony only should be settled by the elected representatives of the people.

REBEL RINGLEADERS BANISHED

Durham remained in Canada only five months. When he arrived, he found the jails of Montreal and Toronto filled with men who had been imprisoned for taking part in the rebellion. In Upper Canada, two of the rebels had already been put to death. Durham promptly released from prison nearly all those who had been arrested. Eight of the ringleaders in Lower Canada, whose part in the rebellion had been very well known, he banished to the West Indies. They were willing to accept the penalty of banishment. Since they had taken part in a rebellion, they might have been tried for treason, and the penalty for treason is death. If they had been tried and convicted, their followers in Lower Canada might have taken up arms again.

Banishing these rebels seemed a wise solution of the difficulties but unfortunately, in banishing them, Durham exceeded the powers that had been given him. His enemies in the British Parliament were quick to criticize his decision and forced the British Government to disallow his action. Durham was a proud man. Angry because the government did not support him, he promptly resigned.

DURHAM'S REPORT

Lord Durham remained in Canada long enough to complete his survey of the situation, and on his return to Great Britain he made a report to the British Government which ushered in a new era in Canadian history. A year later, when he knew he had not long to live, he prophesied, "Canada will one day do justice to my memory."

Durham was right. His Report laid the foundations of our present system of government. His most important recommendations were:

1. Upper and Lower Canada should be united into one province;
2. The Executive Council should be responsible to the Assembly;
3. Towns and villages should elect councils to look after their own local affairs;
4. There should be more opportunities for the young people to obtain an education;

5. A railway should be built connecting the Maritime Provinces with Canada.

Durham's Report marked a complete change in Great Britain's policy toward her colonies. Many people thought that the American colonies had been lost because they had been allowed too much control over their own government. These people were of the opinion that Canada, too, might be lost if the Canadians were given control over their own affairs. Others believed that as soon as colonies grew strong enough to govern themselves they would naturally want their independence. Lord Durham did not agree with either of these groups. The people of the colonies were British subjects, he said, and should have the same right to govern themselves as the people of the British Isles. He could not guarantee that freedom and self-government would keep the colonies loyal to Great Britain, but history has proved that his faith was justified.

Durham was not quite fair to the French Canadians. He was an Englishman. Naturally he believed that English ways were the best. He found that the English-speaking settlers were, on the whole, more prosperous, better educated, and more advanced in their ways than the French-speaking settlers. He found more settlers of British descent who could give him good ideas about how the country should be governed. He honestly thought that the best thing for the French would be for them to speak the English language and adopt English ways. Perhaps if he had stayed longer in Canada he would have realized that the French would never agree to such suggestions. Fortunately, his son-in-law, Lord Elgin, who became governor ten years later, understood that problem better. Lord Elgin thought that the French-speaking Canadians should have the same freedom to manage their own affairs as the English-speaking settlers.

20. Victory to the Reformers

"And statesmen at her council met
Who knew the season when to take
Occasion by the hand, and make
The bounds of freedom wider yet
By shaping some august decree,
Which kept her throne unshaken still,
Broad-based upon her people's will
And compass'd by the inviolate sea."

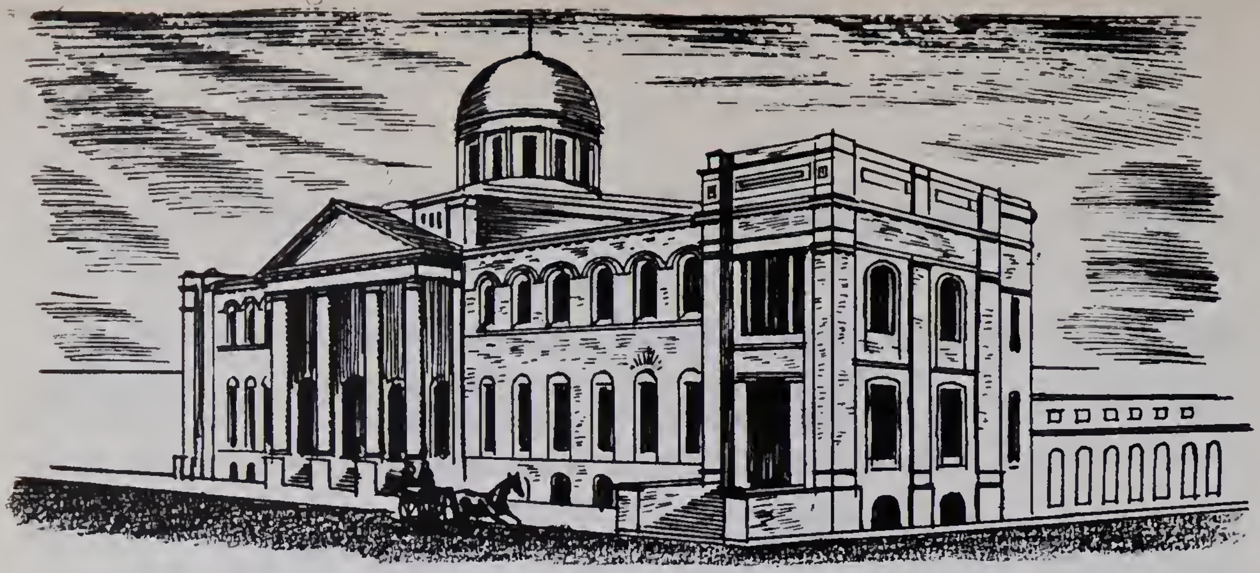
ALFRED, LORD TENNYSON: *To the Queen*

Lord Durham had advised Responsible Government only if Upper and Lower Canada were united into one province. Then, as there were more English-speaking than French-speaking people in the two provinces, the English-speaking group would have control of the Assembly. The British Government was ready to unite the two provinces but was not yet convinced that it would be safe to grant Responsible Government to any colony.

UPPER AND LOWER CANADA UNITED UNDER THOMSON

Fortunately, Lord Durham's successor, Charles Poulett Thomson, was a clever diplomat, skilful in managing men and experienced in politics. He faced two difficult tasks. He had to persuade the two provinces to accept union. And he had to satisfy the people who wanted Responsible Government, who knew that Lord Durham had recommended it for Canada, without actually giving it.

Thomson's first job was to persuade the provinces to agree to the union. Since the Legislative Assembly in Lower Canada had been suspended owing to the rebellion, he had no difficulty there. He consulted the members of the Executive and Legislative Councils, the Château Clique. They agreed at once. The French-speaking people



Alwington House, in Kingston, was once the official residence of the first Governors-General of Canada. This beautiful building, overlooking the St. Lawrence River, was almost completely destroyed by fire in 1958, and finally demolished in 1959. (Information obtained from the Toronto Daily Star library.)

of Lower Canada did not like the idea of union, but there was nothing they could do about it.

Thomson had some difficulty, however, in persuading the people of Upper Canada, for the members of the Family Compact were afraid that they would not have as much power as they now had. He pointed out that Upper Canada had a large public debt while Lower Canada had a small one. If the provinces were united, the debt would be shared. When they were still reluctant to agree, he promised that English would be the official language and that the new capital would be at Kingston. When they still hesitated, Thomson promised that Upper Canada would have as many members in the new Assembly as Lower Canada. Lord Durham had intended that the representation in the Assembly should be in proportion to population, as it is in Canada to-day. Although the population of Lower Canada was very much greater than that of Upper Canada, Lord Durham had not been afraid that the French-speaking group would get a majority in the Assembly. The English-speaking members from Lower Canada, if they worked with the members from Upper Canada, could always provide a majority.

With all these promises Thomson was successful in persuading the Assembly of Upper Canada to agree to the union. In recognition of his success he was given the title Lord Sydenham. The Act of Union was passed by the British Parliament in 1840.

What the French Canadians thought about it we may learn from a speech made by Louis Lafontaine, an outstanding member of their group. Lafontaine had not taken part in the rebellion although he had sympathized with Papineau in the struggle for reforms.

"You have, without our consent," declared Lafontaine, "abolished our legislature, and forced on us a union which we do not desire. You have in official use suppressed our language. You have given Upper Canada, with little more than half our numbers, as many members in your new Parliament as you have given us. You have forced us, with a small debt, to assume a share of the large debt of Upper Canada. How can you ask us to help work such a system? We will not fight again, but we will watch and wait."

A STEP TOWARDS RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT

Lord Sydenham had not been instructed by the Colonial Office to introduce Responsible Government. But he went halfway. He chose men for his Executive Council who belonged to the majority party in the Assembly. However, he continued to preside over the meetings of the Council. In Britain the Prime Minister presided over the meetings and in Canada to-day the Prime Minister does. Sydenham was his own prime minister. Unfortunately, after less than two years in Canada, Lord Sydenham died as a result of a fall from his horse.

ANOTHER STEP

Sir Charles Bagot, the next governor, took another step in the direction of Responsible Government. He asked the leaders of the Reform party, Robert Baldwin and Louis Lafontaine, to choose the members of the Council. Bagot, too, died before he had been two years in Canada.

A STEP BACKWARDS

Sir Charles Metcalfe, who succeeded Bagot, thought that these two governors had gone too far. He chose his own Executive Council and even took part in the elections. By accusing those who opposed him of being disloyal to the Queen, he managed to persuade a majority in the Assembly to support him. He, too, was less than two years in Canada, not long enough to find out whether his system would work.

THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT ACCEPTS THE IDEA

Meanwhile there was a change of government in Britain. The Colonial Minister of the new Liberal Government was Earl Grey, who had been a close friend of Lord Durham and agreed with him about Responsible Government for the colonies. In 1846 Earl Grey sent instructions to the colonial governors in British North America to choose their Executive Councils from the party having the majority in the Legislative Assembly. Nova Scotia was the first province to receive responsible government. The Reformers won the election of 1847, and in February, 1848, the governor dismissed the former members of the Executive Council and chose new advisers from the Reform party.

"Not a blow was struck," Joseph Howe said with pride, "and not a pane of glass was broken. It was a bloodless victory."

Although the stage was now set for a governor-general in Canada who would carry out the instructions to provide Responsible Government, it was not done without blows being struck, panes of glass broken, stones and rotten eggs being thrown in Lower Canada.

LORD ELGIN, A WISE GOVERNOR

When Upper and Lower Canada were united, there was, of course, difficulty about which city was to be the capital. Parliament met in Kingston, in Montreal, in Toronto or in Quebec, before the final decision was made to locate the capital at Ottawa.

In 1847, a great Scottish nobleman, Lord Elgin, came to Canada as Governor-General. The new Governor was a very wise, capable, and courageous man. He was a son-in-law of Lord Durham and in agreement with Lord Durham's recommendations concerning Responsible Government in the colonies.

Lord Elgin understood the French Canadians better than his distinguished father-in-law had. He believed that the only way to get along with the French Canadians was to treat them with respect. One of his first actions was to restore French as an official language in the Legislative Assembly. It was obvious to him that it would be impossible to make the French-speaking Canadians adopt the English language. He realized that any attempt to make the French settlers become like the English would only make them more determined to remain as they were. He maintained that if the French Canadians were treated fairly there would be no subjects more loyal.

When Lord Elgin came to Canada, though the Tory party had a small majority in the Assembly, it was, he said, "as weak as shelled peas". When, in the election of 1847, the Reformers elected more members than the Tories, Lord Elgin immediately put the principles of Responsible Government into practice. He asked the Tory members of the Council to resign and called upon Robert Baldwin and Louis Lafontaine to choose the members of a new Executive Council. When Bagot had done this, the British officials were not ready to approve. When Elgin did it, however, he had behind him the authority of the Colonial Office, which now approved of this step.

THE REBELLION LOSSES BILL

The new government had not been in office long when trouble arose. A bill called the Rebellion Losses Bill was proposed. There had been considerable damage to property during the rebellion and the government had already paid compensation to people in Upper Canada who had suffered losses. Now it was proposed to pay damages in Lower Canada also.

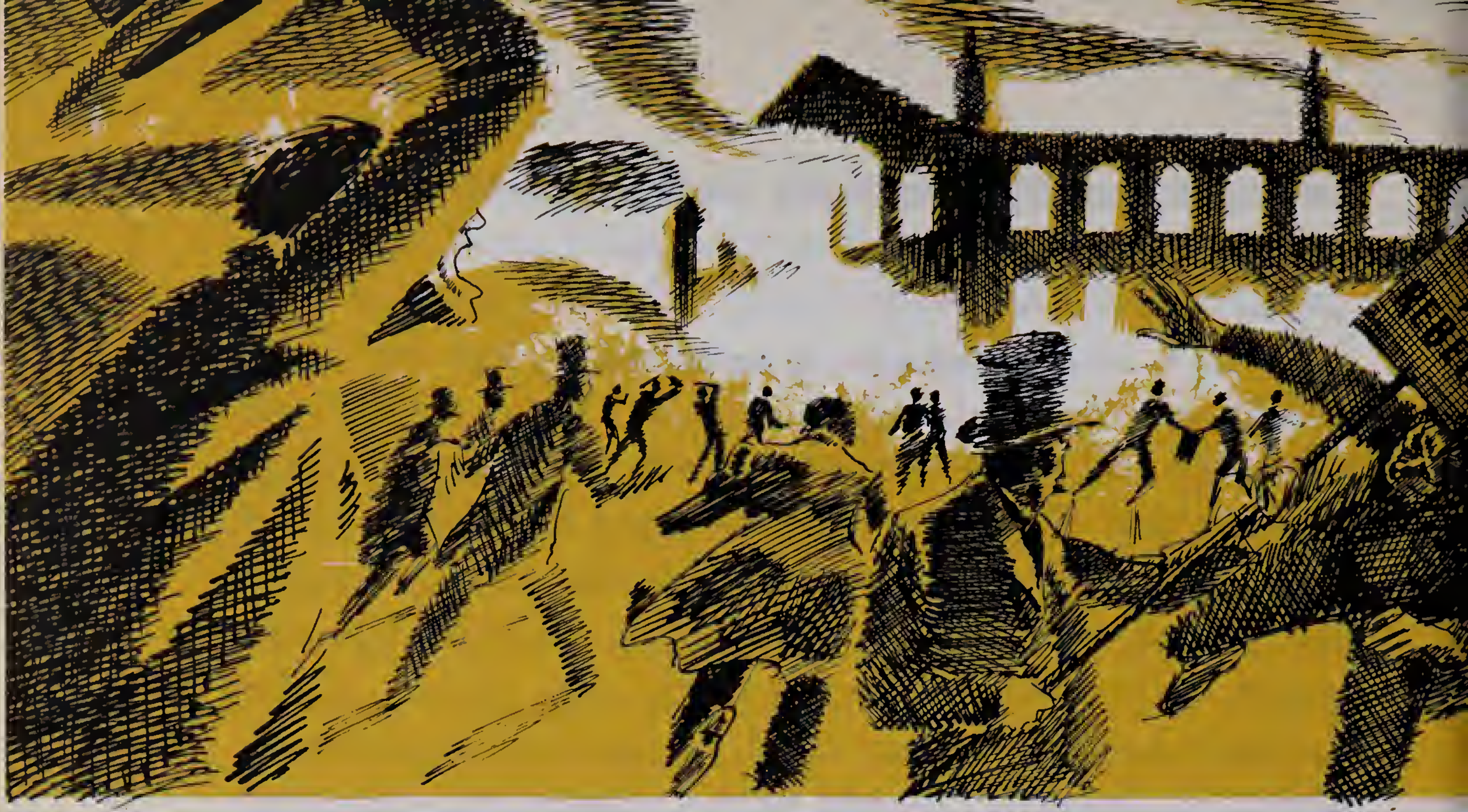
In Upper Canada it had not been hard to tell which citizens had been rebels and which had not. In Lower Canada, however, many more people had been involved. The bill stated that damages should be paid to all who had suffered loss, unless they had been convicted or exiled. Lord Durham had set a great many prisoners free without bringing them to trial. It was quite possible that some rebels might collect payment for damage to property which they themselves had caused. It was freely said, indeed, that Louis Lafontaine proposed to reward his fellow-countrymen for rebelling against the Queen. The members who supported the bill realized the difficulty, but they did not see what else they could do, for if they investigated every case bitter feelings would be stirred up again.

VIOLENCE IN MONTREAL

When the bill was proposed, a great outcry immediately arose against it, especially among the English-speaking citizens of Montreal. However, Baldwin and Lafontaine had a solid majority in the Assembly and the bill was passed. Then the opponents of the bill turned to the Governor-General. They tried to persuade him not to sign it. We know from Lord Elgin's private letters to Lord Grey that he did not approve of the bill, but it had been passed by the Assembly elected by the people of Canada. The Executive Council approved it. Lord Elgin realized that the time had come to put the theory of Responsible Government to the test. It was unfortunate that it had to be in connection with a bill which had aroused such bitter feelings. Even though Lord Elgin was not personally in favour of the bill, he considered it his duty to accept the advice of the Executive Council. He gave his assent to the bill.

The result was one of the most disgraceful riots in Canadian history. When, on April 25, 1849, Lord Elgin came down to the Parliament Buildings in Montreal to sign the bill, some of the Tory members made for the door of the House with hoots and groans. A mob gathered. When Lord Elgin left the Parliament Buildings, he was pelted with what he described in his report to the Colonial Office as "missiles they must have brought with them for the purpose". These missiles were rotten eggs. It was with difficulty that he reached his carriage. As he drove away, he was followed by yells and curses.

That night a mob gathered in the Champs de Mars (Field of Mars) in Montreal. Stirred up by violent



After the Parliament Buildings in Montreal were burned, Parliament met alternately in Toronto and Quebec. This was not a satisfactory arrangement. When Queen Victoria was asked to choose a capital, in 1858, she chose Ottawa.

speeches, the mob surged toward the Parliament Buildings, where an evening session of the House was in progress. They heralded their approach by a shower of stones through the windows. Then they invaded the buildings and drove out the members. Before long there arose the cry of "Fire!" The fire may have been an accident. Whether it was or not, in a short time the Parliament Buildings were wrapped in flames. A few things — among them a portrait of Queen Victoria — were saved, but the buildings themselves, and most of their contents, were reduced to ashes. The Canadian Parliament was without a home. Canada had lost a mass of records which could not be replaced—records which Canadian historians wish they could consult to-day.

The next day the mob attacked the home of Louis Lafontaine, who had to flee for his life. It was against Lord Elgin, however, that the mob chiefly vented their anger. When he went, a week later, to receive from the House of Assembly an address of loyalty, he was subjected to a second attack. This time he barely escaped with his life. Though the governor was escorted by a guard of dragoons, the mob threw stones at him. Every panel of his carriage was smashed. He himself was slightly injured, and his brother, who was with him, seriously injured. On his return to his country house outside Montreal, he was compelled to make arrangements to stand a siege. When some of the ladies of his household ventured to go to church on Sunday morning, they were insulted in the streets. There were no municipal police in Montreal at that time, and it was days before the mob quieted down. So bitter was the feeling against Lord Elgin that he was expelled from membership in the Scottish societies of Montreal.

RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT AT LAST

Lord Elgin, however, did not falter in the course he had chosen. He stayed within his own grounds until the storm had blown over — not from cowardice, but merely because he was determined that no blood should be shed on his account. Yet he did not yield an inch before the threats of the Montreal mob. By standing firm he established clearly and finally the principle that the Government of Canada was responsible to the representatives of the Canadian people.

Ever since Lord Elgin's day, the Government of Canada has been in the hands of an Executive Council which has the support of the majority in the Legislature, and the Governor-General has occupied the impartial position which he occupies to-day — ready to work cordially with any political party. In other words, since Lord Elgin's day Canadians have enjoyed the blessing of self-government. For this Lord Elgin deserves no small share of the credit.

Lord Elgin came to Canada at a difficult time. The trouble about the Rebellion Losses Bill was not the only serious problem he had to face. There was a depression in Canada; the milling industry was in distress; property values were falling; hundreds of business men were bankrupt. The reason for this was a change in Britain's trade policies. For some time Canadian lumber had enjoyed a preference in the British market; that is, less duty was paid on Canadian lumber than on lumber from other countries. In 1843 the British Parliament had passed the Canadian Corn Act allowing Canadian wheat and flour to enter Britain at a lower rate of duty than wheat or flour from other countries. At this time, however, British manufacturers were demanding free trade in food and raw materials, so that they would not have to pay high wages and could obtain their materials for manufacturing at the lowest possible price. If Britain could produce goods more cheaply than other countries she could have a larger share of the world's markets. In 1846 Britain repealed the Corn Laws, thus removing the preference on Canadian wheat and flour. The repeal was to take effect in 1849. The preference on lumber had already been withdrawn. Now lumber from Scandinavia and wheat from Russia and the United States could compete with Canadian products.

During the years that Canada enjoyed the preference, Montreal millers had bought wheat from the United States, made it into flour, and then exported it to Britain. A great deal of capital was invested in flour-mills and the millers were making money. The Repeal of the Corn Laws ruined many of the millers and threw great numbers of men out of work.

The Montreal merchants were so angry that they signed an Annexation Manifesto advocating "friendly and passive separation from the British connection and a union upon equitable terms with the great North American Confederacy of Sovereign States". Over a thousand citizens signed the Manifesto.

Lord Elgin acted promptly. He dismissed from office anyone who had signed the Manifesto. At the same time he explained the situation to the British Government and looked about for ways of improving Canadian trade.

"Peel's Bill of 1846 drives the whole produce down the New York channels of communication," Lord Elgin reported to the Colonial Secretary, "destroying the revenue which Canada expected to derive from canal dues, and ruining at once mill-owners, forwarders, and merchants . . . What makes it more serious is that all the prosperity of which Canada is thus robbed is transplanted to the other side of the line, as if to make Canadians feel more bitterly how much kinder England is to the children who desert her than to those who remain faithful."

In 1849 Britain repealed the Navigation Acts which had required that all goods going to or from the colonies must go in British or colonial ships. Business improved when, in the spring of 1850, over a hundred ships flying foreign flags appeared in the harbour of Quebec to buy Canadian products. The crop of 1849 had been a good one and the depression became less severe.

Nothing came of the annexation movement. The depression had not been as serious in other parts of the country as it had been in Montreal. The people of Upper Canada, especially those of Loyalist descent and those recently arrived from Britain, were strongly opposed to any talk about joining the United States. With returning prosperity the Montreal merchants were happy to forget about annexation.

THE RECIPROCITY TREATY

Lord Elgin continued his efforts to improve conditions in Canada. He went to Washington and there conferred with American leaders about increasing trade between Canada and the United States. He persuaded the Americans to agree to the Reciprocity Treaty of 1854 which provided for free trade between the British North American Provinces and the United States in the products of the farm, forest, mine, and sea.

For Further Study

1. Do you know the name of the Prime Minister of Canada, of the Cabinet Ministers from your province, of the Premier of your province, of the Minister of Education, of the Mayor of your city? If there are any you do not know, find out now who holds these offices.
2. Do you know how an election is carried out? Conduct your class election as a municipal or provincial election is conducted. Prepare a voters' list. Prepare ballots with the names of the candidates printed on them. Appoint a deputy returning officer and scrutineers. Have a voters' booth with a pencil tied to it. Did you know that a ballot marked in ink or in any coloured pencil other than the one provided is declared invalid?
3. Find the percentage that voted in your town in the last election. Why should everyone who has the right to vote exercise that right?
4. How is your municipal tax rate determined? What is the mill rate in your town or city? What services does your community give its citizens in return for the taxes? Can you find out how many cents out of every dollar of taxes in your community are spent on education? how much on roads? how much on parks? how much on libraries?

5. Taxes are higher than they were fifty years ago. Goods and services cost more than they did fifty years ago — that is one reason taxes are higher. Can you think of any other reasons?

6. There are people who say "We don't have to pay for it; the government provides it." What is wrong with that attitude?

7. Imagine you are a group of settlers in the backwoods of Upper Canada gathered round the stove in the country store, discussing your grievances. One could speak about the Clergy Reserves, another about the land held for speculation by the members of the Family Compact, another about the difficulty of getting roads and bridges built where they are needed, another about the lack of schools for the children, and another might complain about the fact that only clergymen of the Church of England were allowed to perform the marriage service. What suggestions would you make for improving the situation?

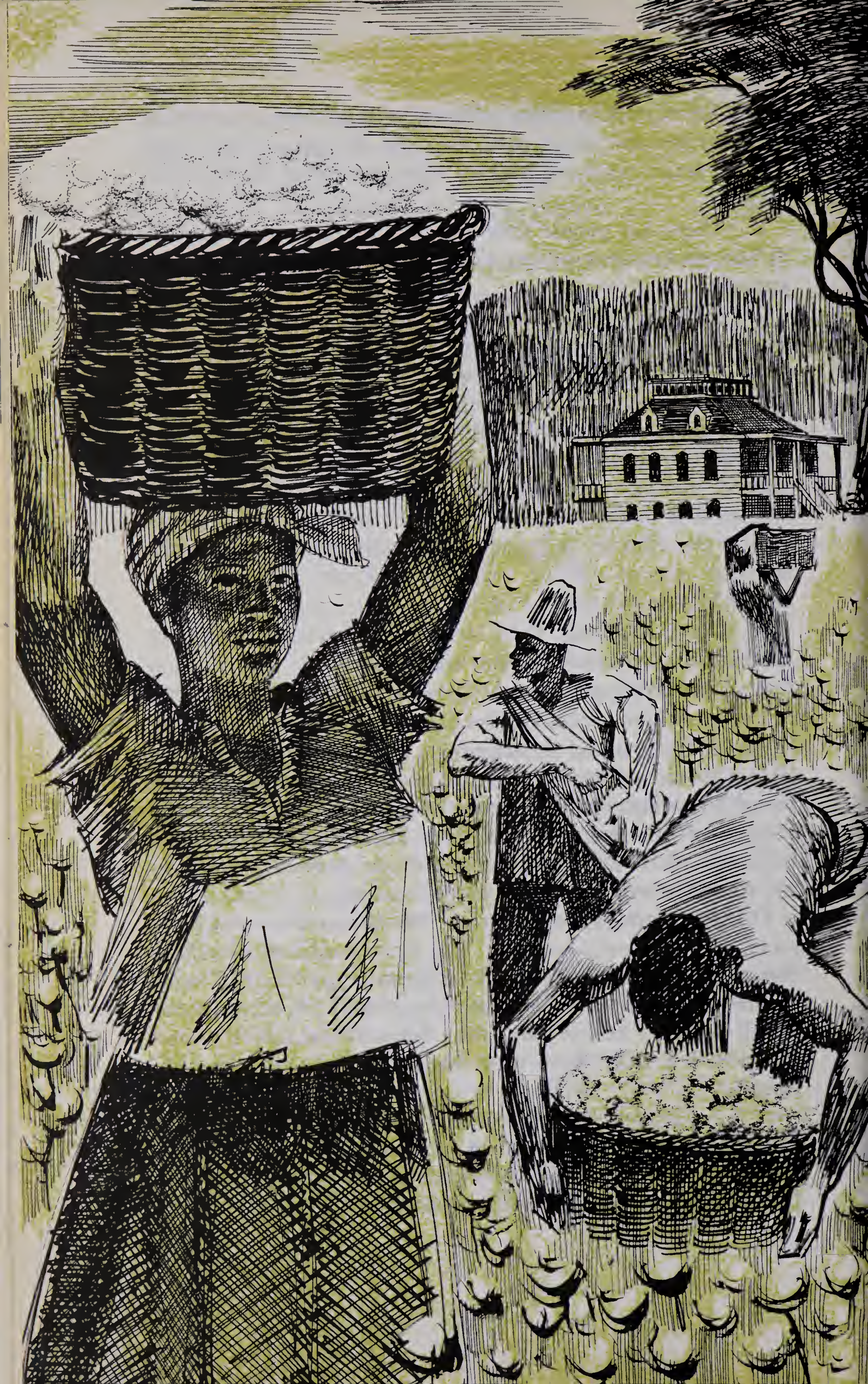
8. If you had been there, would you have marched with Mackenzie? Give reasons for your answer.

9. Different groups might prepare biographical sketches or murals of Mackenzie, Papineau, or Howe.

10. Make a mural depicting the achievement of Responsible Government under Lord Elgin. You might use for one scene, Elgin signing the bill; for another, the burning of the Parliament Buildings; for another, Lafontaine fleeing from his home when the mob attacked it; for another, crowds in the street throwing stones at Elgin's carriage.

11. In the federal election of 1958 the number of C.C.F. members was greatly reduced. The party leaders decided that they should reorganize and make a greater appeal to the Trades Unions and the farmers' organizations to find a common cause for all workers. At first they called themselves simply the New Party. What name have they selected? What is their platform?

12. See if you can find for your stamp collection the 1948 four-cent stamp celebrating one hundred years of responsible government and the 1927 fifty-cent stamp with portraits of Robert Baldwin and Louis Lafontaine.



V. *The United States Has Its Problems*

21. The Rapid Growth of the West Brings Difficult Problems

> "All your strength is in your union.
> All your danger is in discord."
>
> H. W. Longfellow: *The Song of Hiawatha*

All the thoughtful men who established the government of the United States realized that there would be many conflicts of interest between the various groups in the country and they hoped and prayed that these differences could be settled peacefully. Three sections developed: the North, the South, the West.

In the North, a prosperous manufacturing industry grew up. New England clipper ships carried American goods all over the world, and the cities of Boston, New York, and Philadelphia became important centres of trade. Farmers owned and worked their own lands. Although slavery was permitted in the North, there were not many slaves there and public opinion was against slavery.

The South was the land of the plantations, from which tobacco and cotton were exported. Here the planters depended on Negro slaves to do the hard work in the tobacco and cotton fields.

Pioneers from the eastern states and immigrants from Europe seeking land moved westward into Michigan, Iowa, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, and even across the

Mississippi into Kansas and Nebraska. On the Pacific Coast settlements in Oregon were growing fast, and gold had brought thousands of people to California. Prospectors were searching for gold and silver in Nevada and Colorado. Many of the people of both the North and the South were not in favour of rapid development of the West. As more and more families moved away from the northern states to take up farms in the West, the manufacturers found they were losing their labour force. The Southerners were afraid that they would be outnumbered in the Senate when some of the territories became states, since every state had the right to send two members to the Senate.

THE PROBLEM OF SLAVERY

The issue which brought the North and the South into conflict was the question of slavery. It was not until the eighteenth century that a considerable number of people throughout the world began to declare that it was wrong for one human being to own another. In ancient times it was taken for granted that victorious nations might make slaves of their defeated foes. Later came the practice of buying African Negroes from the chiefs or kidnapping them and selling them as slaves. It was not until 1807 that slavery was abolished in Britain and not until 1833 that it was abolished in the British possessions.

Slavery was not forbidden by law in the northern colonies when they were under British rule, but the climate and the industries there made slave labour not very valuable. A large number of people in the North came to believe that slavery should be abolished and by 1800 eight of the northern states had passed laws against slavery. These were Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, New

Hampshire, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and Vermont. Eight southern states, North and South Carolina, Georgia, Virginia, Maryland, Delaware, Kentucky, and Tennessee, were the slave-owning states.

Even so, there were many people in the South who believed slavery was wrong. George Washington wrote in 1788, "I never mean to possess another slave by purchase, it being among my first wishes to see some plan adopted by which slavery in this country may be done away with by law." James Madison and Thomas Jefferson, although they too owned slaves, agreed with him. Some Southerners freed some of their slaves; others believed that in time slavery would simply die out. Then events took a turn that made many of the Southerners want more slaves than ever.

COTTON BECOMES KING

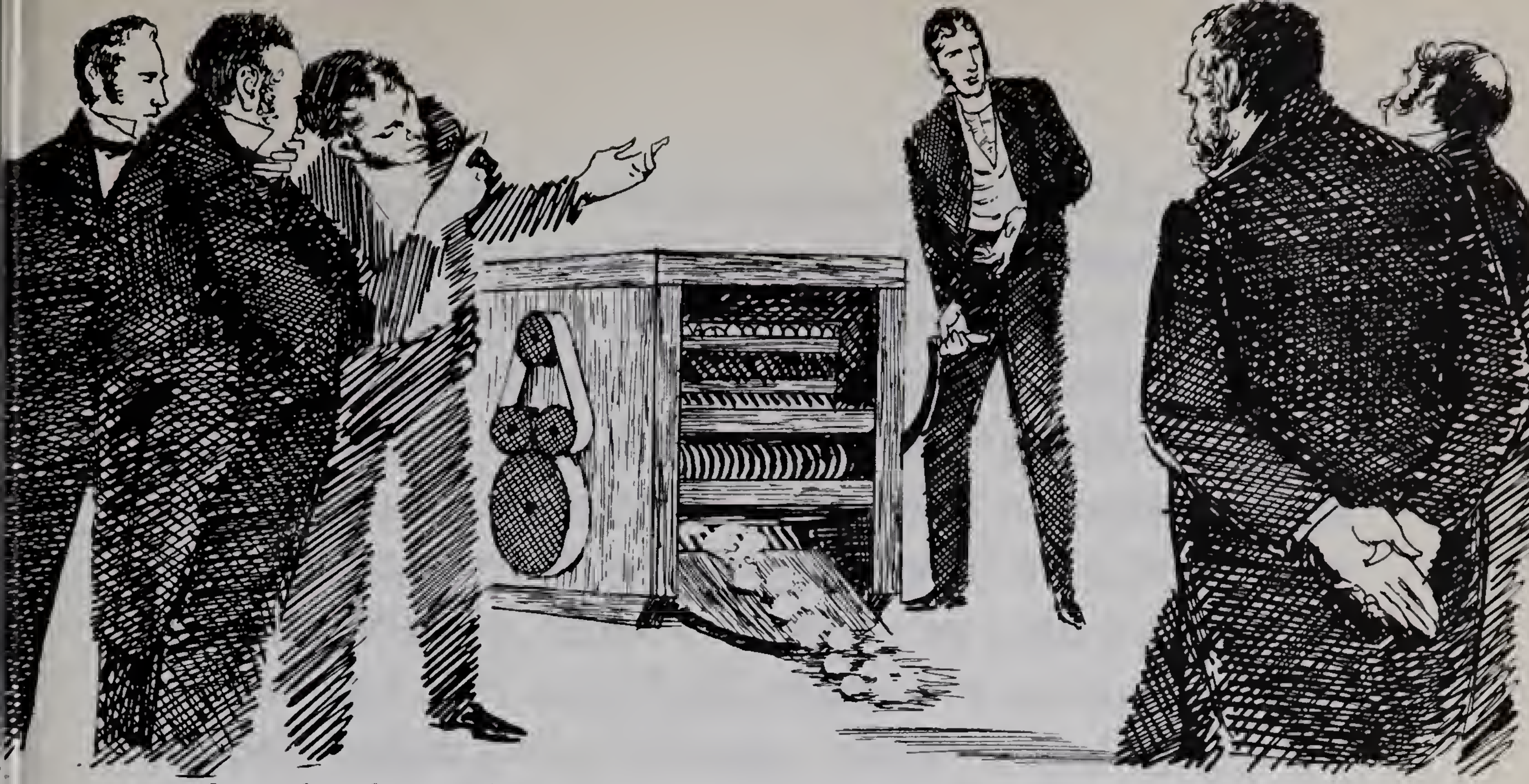
In 1793 Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin or cotton eng*ine*. This was a world shaking event. Eli Whitney was a young graduate of Yale who had come to Georgia to be a tutor to the children of a wealthy planter. When he arrived he found that the planter would pay him only half of what he expected, so he refused to take the position. Mrs. Nathanael Greene, who owned a plantation near Savannah, invited him to come to her place. There he showed that he was very skilful in making toys for the children and in making an embroidery frame for Mrs. Greene. One day when some of her neighbours said they wished some one would make a machine which would separate the seeds from the cotton Mrs. Greene suggested that they should ask Eli Whitney to make one.

Until this time picking the seeds from cotton had been so slow and tedious that even a skilful worker could pick only a few pounds in a day. Even with Whitney's first experimental cotton gin one man turning a wheel like the wheel of a grindstone could clean as much cotton as fifty workers had been able to do by hand. Now the planters could make far more money out of their cotton crops.

Whitney's invention had a tremendous effect upon the textile industry and upon agriculture in the southern states. In fact it is possible to argue that it caused the American Civil War by increasing the demand for cotton and the need for slaves in the cotton fields.

Until shortly before this time when all spinning and weaving was done by hand, cloth was expensive. Shortly before Whitney built his cotton gin the English had invented machines which speeded up spinning and weaving, and James Watt had made a steam engine which supplied power to run the machines. Enterprising men built mills in which they were able to produce cloth more cheaply than had ever been possible before. When cloth became cheaper people bought more of it and the mill owners became very prosperous. Because the English did not want the people of any other nation to have these machines, the British Parliament passed very strict laws forbidding anyone to take machines, or even plans of machines, out of the country.

When a young Englishman named Samuel Slater learned that the Americans would pay a substantial sum to anyone who could build a machine to spin and weave cloth, he decided that he would win this reward. He did not dare to try to take any drawings with him, but he worked in mills until he knew enough about the machines to be able to make one. Then in 1789 he set out for Rhode Island, where he built the first American textile machines. Now American factories, as well as English, were hungry for American cotton.



When Eli Whitney demonstrated his cotton gin ("gin" is a shortened form of engine) the southern planters saw prospects of greater wealth from cotton. They began to look for more land and more slaves to work in the cotton fields.

The planters needed more land and more slaves to keep up with the demand. They spread out into Mississippi, Alabama, Louisiana, and Texas, where the soil was suitable for cotton growing. By 1859 over twenty-five times as much cotton was grown as had been grown in 1820.

Since the planters believed that they could not make a profit without slave labour, it became very important to them that no one should interfere with the institution of slavery. Laws had been passed against bringing slaves into America but there were still slave ships which smuggled them in. Slaves became valuable. A good "cotton hand" brought a high price, sometimes as much as $1,800. Some Southerners began to defend the institution of slavery, maintaining that the slaves were more fortunate on a good plantation than were the factory workers of the North. There was some truth in this, but only some of the plantations could be considered good. Moreover, the slaves did not have the right, as did the factory workers of the North, to leave their jobs, and set out for the West where they could take up land for themselves.

In other Christian countries slavery was being abolished. Great Britain had led the way; France followed in 1848; and, even in the republics of South America, slavery had been abolished by 1850. William Lloyd Garrison, a leader of the abolition movement in the United States, wrote in his newspaper in Baltimore, "My pen cannot remain idle, nor my voice be suppressed, nor my heart cease to bleed, while two million of my fellow-beings wear the shackles of slavery in my own guilty land." In 1831 Garrison returned to New England where he established another newspaper, *The Liberator,* in which he campaigned actively for the abolition of slavery. Not all the Northerners favoured abolition. What would happen to the cotton mills if they could not buy cheap cotton? And there were thoughtful men who realized that any attempt to abolish slavery would certainly cause trouble between the North and the South.

Years before the Civil War began, the Southerners talked in war-like terms. They were ready to fight to defend their right to have slaves. Senator James Hammond of South Carolina boasted in 1855, "Without the firing of a gun, without drawing a sword, should the Northerners make war upon us, we could bring the whole world to our feet . . . No, you dare not make war on cotton. No power on earth dares to make war on it. Cotton is King." Senator Hammond did not realize how strong the opinion in the civilized world outside of the Southern States was growing in favour of abolition of slavery.

WERE THE NEW STATES TO BE "SLAVE" OR "FREE"?

As the cotton planters moved west, they continued to use slaves in the cotton fields. Even after the cotton boom developed, the Northern and the Southern states were able to compromise for some time on the question of where slavery would be recognized by law in the United States. The line dividing the slave-holding states from the "free" states, in which slavery was illegal, was the Mason-Dixon line, the line separating Maryland from Pennsylvania. It is named for the two men who surveyed it in colonial times to settle a dispute between William Penn's sons and Lord Baltimore's descendants. In 1820, by an agreement known as the Missouri Compromise, slavery was recognized as legal in Missouri, but the line which would divide the "slave" states from the "free" states in the new West was moved a considerable distance south of the Mason-Dixon line to the parallel of latitude 36° 30′, which runs along the southern boundary of Missouri. As the cotton planters continued to seek new land, however, the system of slavery threatened to spread into the western territories beyond the Mississippi.

The Northerners wanted the new states to be "free", partly because so many Northerners thought slavery was wrong, but also because they wanted the land available for farms for free men. Naturally the Southerners were anxious that there be as many new states which allowed slavery as states which opposed it. They did not want the "slave" states to be outnumbered in the Senate. Until 1848 they were able to keep the balance fairly even. Usually when a "free" state was established, a "slave" state was established soon afterwards or vice versa, as the following summary shows:

"FREE" STATES	"SLAVE" STATES
Ohio ....17th state, admitted 1803	Louisiana ..18th state, admitted 1812
Indiana ......19th state, admitted 1816	Mississippi 20th state, admitted 1817
Illinois ..... 21st state, admitted 1818	Alabama . 22nd state, admitted 1819
Maine ....23rd state, admitted 1820	Missouri ....24th state, admitted 1821
Michigan ..25th state, admitted 1837	Arkansas ....26th state, admitted 1836
Iowa .... 29th state, admitted 1846	Florida ..... 27th state, admitted 1845
Wisconsin . 30th state, admitted 1848	Texas .... 28th state, admitted 1845

It was almost a case of "turn about is fair play". But when gold was discovered in the West, California was admitted as a free state in 1850, followed by Minnesota and Oregon in 1859. The balance was swinging to the side of the free states.

BLEEDING KANSAS

In 1854, Senator Stephen A. Douglas of Illinois persuaded Congress to pass a bill providing for government in two territories, Kansas and Nebraska. These territories were north of 36° 30′, but the bill did not state that these were to be "free" territories. The Northerners were furious and argued that the Missouri Compromise had provided that there should be no slavery in that part of the West north of 36° 30′. The act left the decision about slavery to the people of Kansas and Nebraska.

In Kansas a bitter struggle broke out between Northerners and Southerners who poured into the territory. Each group was trying to build up a majority. Armed bands of pro-slavery men roamed through the area, burning the settlements of the "free-soil" farmers from the North. The area became known as "bleeding Kansas".

Into the midst of this storm strode a doughty fighter — John Brown. He was a leader in the struggle to make Kansas a "free" state. In 1859, at the head of a small band of men, he seized the federal arsenal at Harper's Ferry in Virginia to obtain a supply of arms. Then he urged the slaves of the South to take up arms to gain their freedom. Brown was captured by Virginian forces and put to death. As the old song ran,

"John Brown's body lies a-mouldering in the grave,
His soul goes marching on."

Brown's attempt to start a slave revolt terrified the whole

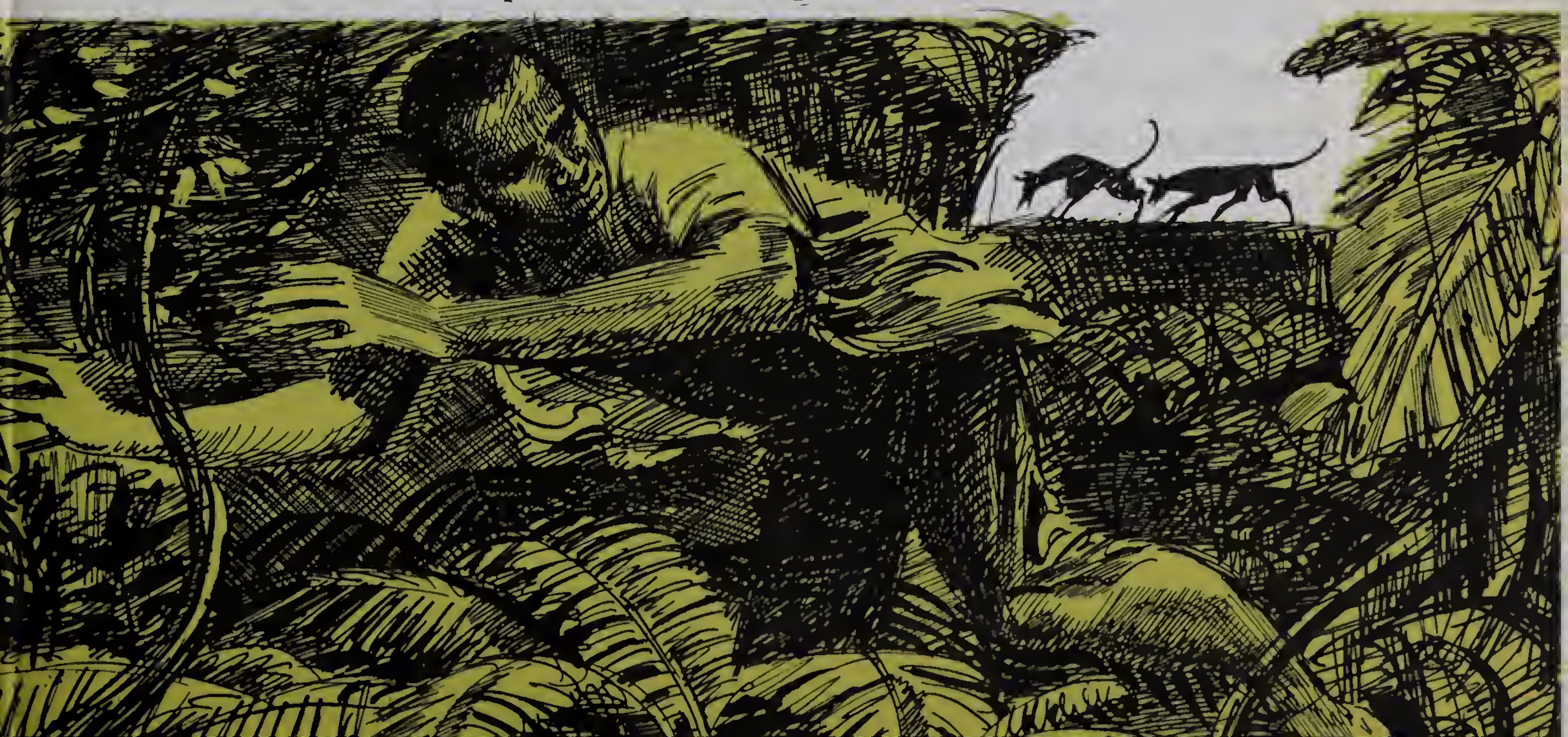
South. Now that there were more "free" states than "slave" states, the South feared that action might be taken to abolish slavery.

THE SPLIT WIDENS

More and more people in the North began to work actively for the abolition of slavery. Many Northerners helped runaway slaves to escape. They planned routes by which the runaways could make their way to Canada and freedom. These routes were called the "underground railroad", though they were neither underground nor railroads. The "stations" were friendly households in which fugitives were given food and shelter, and the "conductors" on the underground railroad were the kind people who helped the Negroes on their way. The Southerners succeeded in passing the Fugitive Slave Law, allowing a slave owner to seize a slave anywhere he found him, and imposing a penalty on anyone who helped a slave to escape. Nevertheless, slaves continued to escape by the underground railroad.

In 1852 a book appeared which had a tremendous influence on the people. It was *Uncle Tom's Cabin,* telling the story of Uncle Tom, a slave on a Southern plantation

As the cotton industry grew, slaves became more valuable. Some, willing to risk their lives for freedom, ran away. Overseers with hunting dogs pursued the runaways, whose only hope of escape was to cross a river or hide in a swamp to throw the dogs off the track.



under a cruel and brutal overseer, named Simon Legree, of Eliza, who escaped from her pursuers by crossing the ice of the river, of Topsy, the little Negro girl who "just growed", and little Eva, the gentle little white girl. The book was written by Harriet Beecher Stowe who, when she lived in Cincinnati, had helped many fugitive slaves along their way.

Over three hundred thousand copies of *Uncle Tom's Cabin* were sold in its first year, and it was translated into thirty-seven languages. The Northerners accepted kind, gentle, unhappy Uncle Tom as the typical slave, and harsh, brutal Simon Legree as the typical white overseer. The Southerners were furious, claiming that Mrs. Stowe had painted an unfair picture of life on a southern plantation.

By this time the Union of the American States was in grave danger. The Protestant churches had divided into northern and southern branches because the northern clergymen preached against slavery while the southern clergy defended it. The two major political parties, the Whigs (formerly the Federalists) and the Democrats, also split on the slavery question.

By 1854 a new political party was formed with the purpose of bringing together those who wished to stop the spread of slavery. This was the Republican party. Some of the Whigs joined the Republican party and the others cast their lot in with the Democrats. Southerners declared that if a Republican President was elected the South would secede, that is, it would withdraw from the Union and form a separate nation.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN

Abraham Lincoln, the man whose destiny it was to lead the nation through the frightful tragedy of the Civil War, was born in a one-roomed dirt-floored log cabin in Kentucky. When he was ten years old his family moved to Indiana, the West of those days. Lincoln had little opportunity to go to school, but he was able to attend long enough to learn to read and from that time on he read everything he could lay his hands on. This eager boy realized that he could learn from books many of the things he wanted to know. What few books he had, he read over and over again. He borrowed books from the neighbours for miles around. When he was twenty-one he moved on to Illinois, and there he worked at whatever jobs he could get. He split rails; he built a flat-boat for trading on the river; he tried running a store, but it was not a success and left him deep in debt. Meanwhile, Lincoln was studying law from borrowed books and discussing politics whenever he had an opportunity. In 1834 he was elected to the Illinois Legislature. Three years later, he opened his law office in Springfield, Illinois, and there he lived (except from 1847-9 when he was a member of Congress) until he became President of the United States.

Lincoln is one of America's great men. He was unswervingly honest. The story is told that he once walked three miles to return six cents to a woman he had overcharged. He was a good story-teller, and often won his opponents over by telling an amusing story which illustrated his argument. He was very tall, lanky, and awkward in appearance, but he could hold the attention of his audiences because he spoke simply, sincerely, and with humour. He was a man of principle. Once he made up his mind that a course of action was right, he stuck to it.

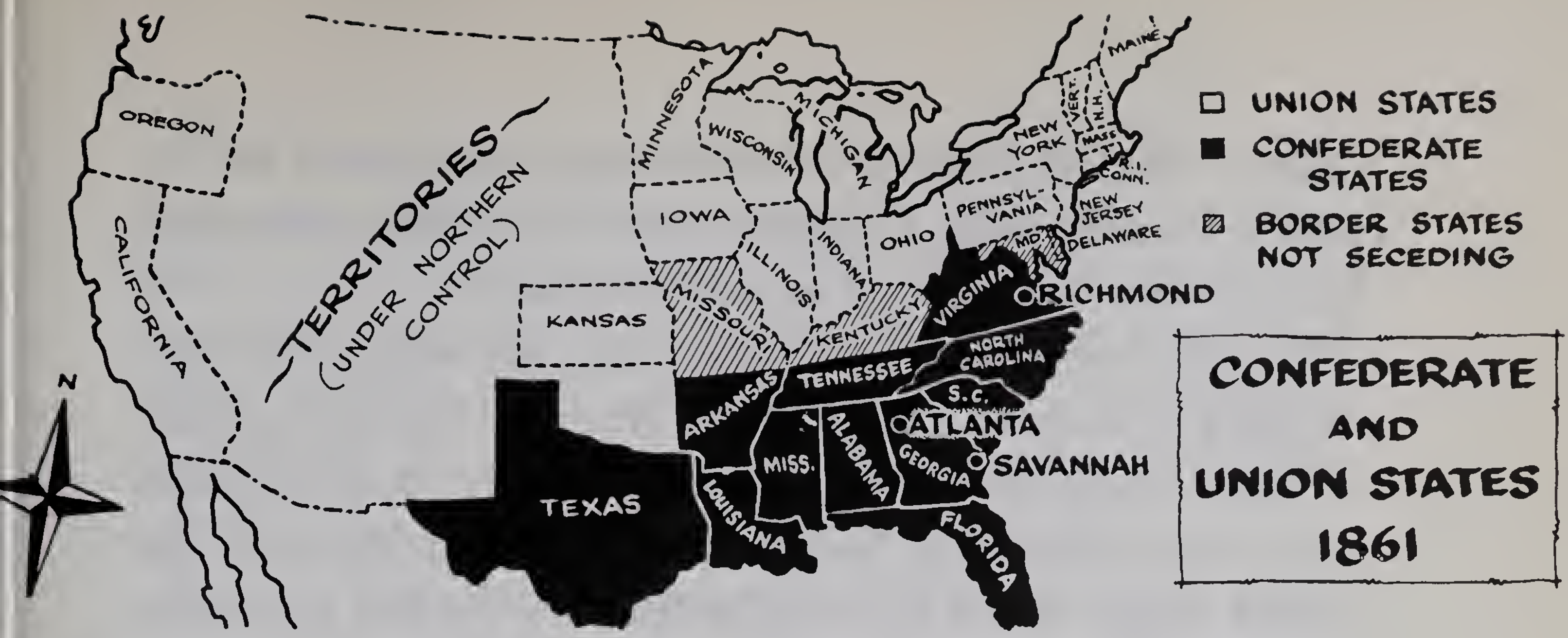
The most important principle ever held by Lincoln was that the American union was "indissoluble" — that it could not be broken by any state or group of states. He also believed that the states could not remain united if they disagreed on something as important as slavery. When he was campaigning for election to the Senate in 1858, he made a famous speech. "A house divided against itself," he said, "cannot stand. I believe this government cannot endure permanently, half slave and half free. I do not expect the Union to be dissolved — I do not expect the house to fall — but I do expect it will cease to be divided."

Lincoln showed where he stood on the question of slavery when he said, "Slavery is the spirit that says, 'You work and toil and earn the bread, and I'll eat it.' " Lincoln was not elected to the Senate, but in 1860 he ran for President of the United States and won.

22. The American Civil War

> "Beat! beat ! drums! — Blow! bugles! blow!
> Over the traffic of cities — over the rumble of wheels in the
> streets . . ."
>
> Walt Whitman: *Beat! Beat! Drums!*

The Southerners had said they would secede if a Republican became President. Between November when Lincoln was elected and March 4th when he took office, seven of the Southern states announced that they were withdrawing from the Union. These states were South Carolina, Georgia, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Louisiana, and Texas. A congress of the seceding states organized a new government under the name of the Confederate States of America. Jefferson Davis was chosen President. In most Southern states Jefferson Davis' birthday is still a public holiday, just as Lincoln's birthday is in some of the Northern states.


CONFEDERATE AND UNION STATES 1861
☐ UNION STATES
■ CONFEDERATE STATES
▨ BORDER STATES NOT SECEDING
TERRITORIES (UNDER NORTHERN CONTROL)
OREGON
CALIFORNIA
KANSAS
TEXAS
MINNESOTA
WISCONSIN
MICHIGAN
IOWA
ILLINOIS
INDIANA
OHIO
MISSOURI
KENTUCKY
ARKANSAS
TENNESSEE
LOUISIANA
MISS.
ALABAMA
GEORGIA
FLORIDA
S.C.
NORTH CAROLINA
VIRGINIA
MD.
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW YORK
NEW JERSEY
DELAWARE
CONN.
R.I.
MASS.
VERT.
N.H.
MAINE
RICHMOND
ATLANTA
SAVANNAH
N

The Confederates seized federal property within their states. This was open defiance but Lincoln still hoped that the issue might be settled without bloodshed. Also he was determined that the North would not fire the first shot.

In his inaugural address the new President assured the nation that it was not his purpose to end slavery but that he did intend to keep it from spreading. He warned the Southerners, "You can have no conflict without yourselves being the aggressors. You have no oath registered in Heaven to destroy the government, while I have a most solemn one to preserve, protect, and defend it."

It was concern about slavery that made the South secede, but the reason the North fought was not to free the slaves. It was to preserve the Union of the States. The issue at stake was: Had any state the right to withdraw from the Union? Lincoln made this point clear over and over again.

"I am naturally anti-slavery," Lincoln wrote to a friend. "If slavery is not wrong nothing is wrong. Yet I have never felt that the presidency conferred upon me an unrestricted right to act officially upon that judgment and feeling."

"My paramount object in this struggle," he declared, "is to save the Union and is not either to save or destroy slavery. If I could save the Union without freeing any slaves, I would do it; if I could save it by freeing all the slaves, I would do it; if I could save it by freeing some and leaving the rest alone, I would do that."

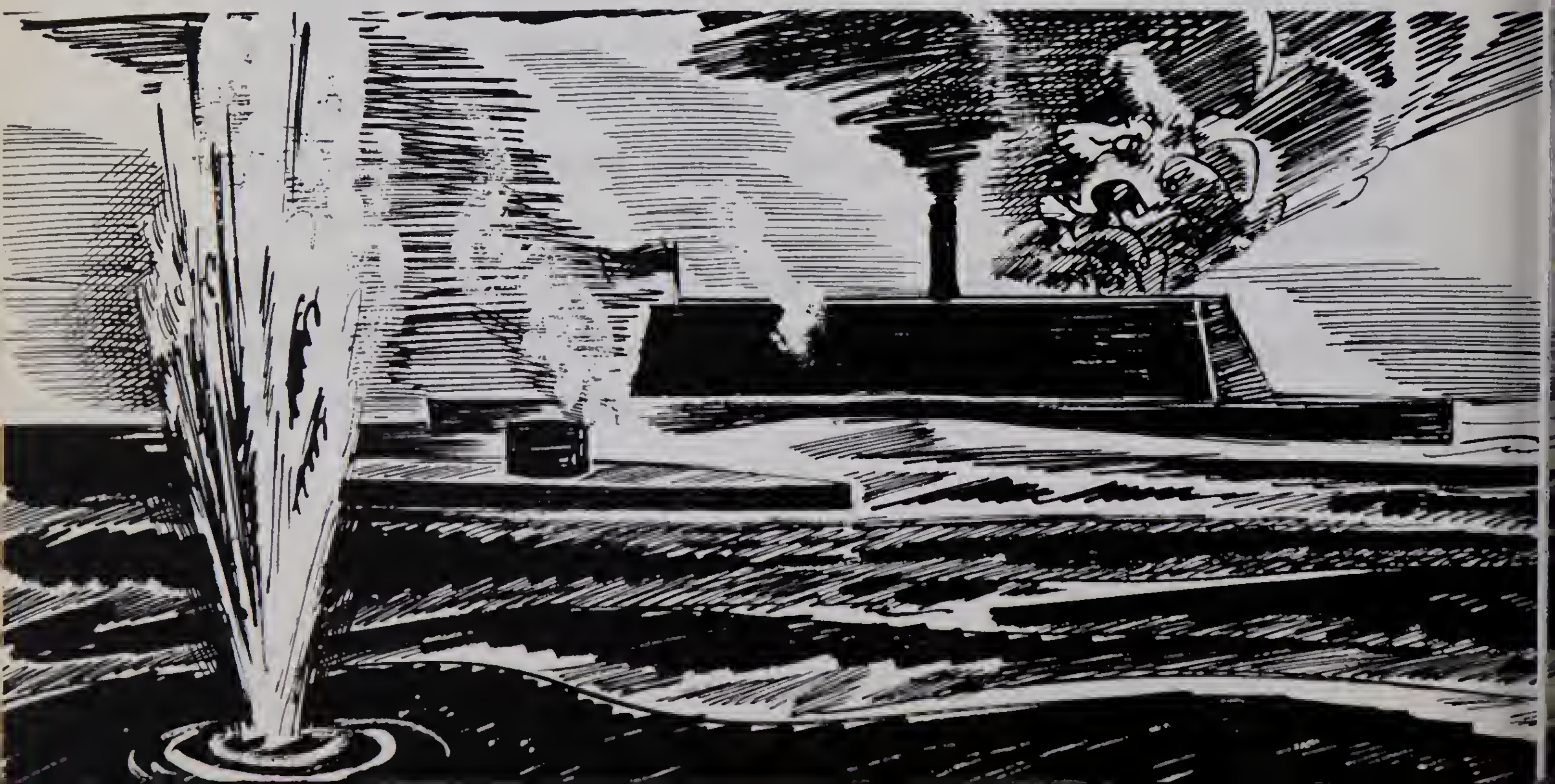
The first shot was fired when Lincoln refused to surrender Fort Sumter in Charleston Harbour, South Carolina, to the Confederate army. After a heavy bombardment from the shore, Fort Sumter had to surrender, and the armies of the North and the South were locked in deadly combat.

Four more states, Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Arkansas, joined the seceding states. Maryland, Delaware, Kentucky, and Missouri, though they were "slave" states, remained loyal to the Union.

FOUR DREADFUL YEARS OF WAR

Nearly three million soldiers were involved in the tremendous struggle which lasted full four years. It was a tragic time when men had to choose between their loyalty to their state and their loyalty to the Union. Families were divided in their allegiance; friend fought against friend and brother against brother.

The battle between the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac*, in 1862, was one of the decisive battles of the war. There was a desperate race between the North and the South to complete their first ironclad vessels, for whichever side won could hope to control the seas. The South's *Merrimac* was ready one day ahead of its rival, but, when the two met, the North's *Monitor* forced the *Merrimac* to retreat to harbour.



The Southerners met with some success at first. They were more united in their cause than the North, and they had more brilliant generals. The North, however, had more men and greater resources. It had about 70 per cent of the population, 71 per cent of the railway mileage, 86 per cent of the factories. The North was certain to win unless it was defeated in the first few months.

One of the greatest generals of the war was General Robert E. Lee of Virginia. He had been an officer in the American army, and was opposed to secession. "If I owned four million slaves," he said, "I would cheerfully sacrifice them to the preservation of the Union, but to lift my hand against my own state and people is impossible." When Virginia seceded Lee resigned his commission, and became commander-in-chief of the Southern armies. Under Lee the South won several victories. No Northern general was a match for him until in 1863 Lincoln made General Ulysses S. Grant commander-in-chief of the Northern forces.

THE EMANCIPATION OF THE SLAVES

In September, 1862, Lincoln decided that he must free the slaves of the Confederate States. The Southerners were finding the slaves very useful; Negro slaves worked on the farms to supply food for the army; they looked after the horses; they dug ditches and built forts. Few of them knew why the war was being fought, and many of them were completely loyal to the families that owned them. In September, 1862, Lincoln read to his Cabinet a solemn warning to the rebel states that, unless they returned to the Union, in one hundred days he would declare that their slaves would be "henceforth and forever free". On January 1, 1863, Lincoln signed the Emancipation Proclamation freeing all the slaves of the Confederate States.

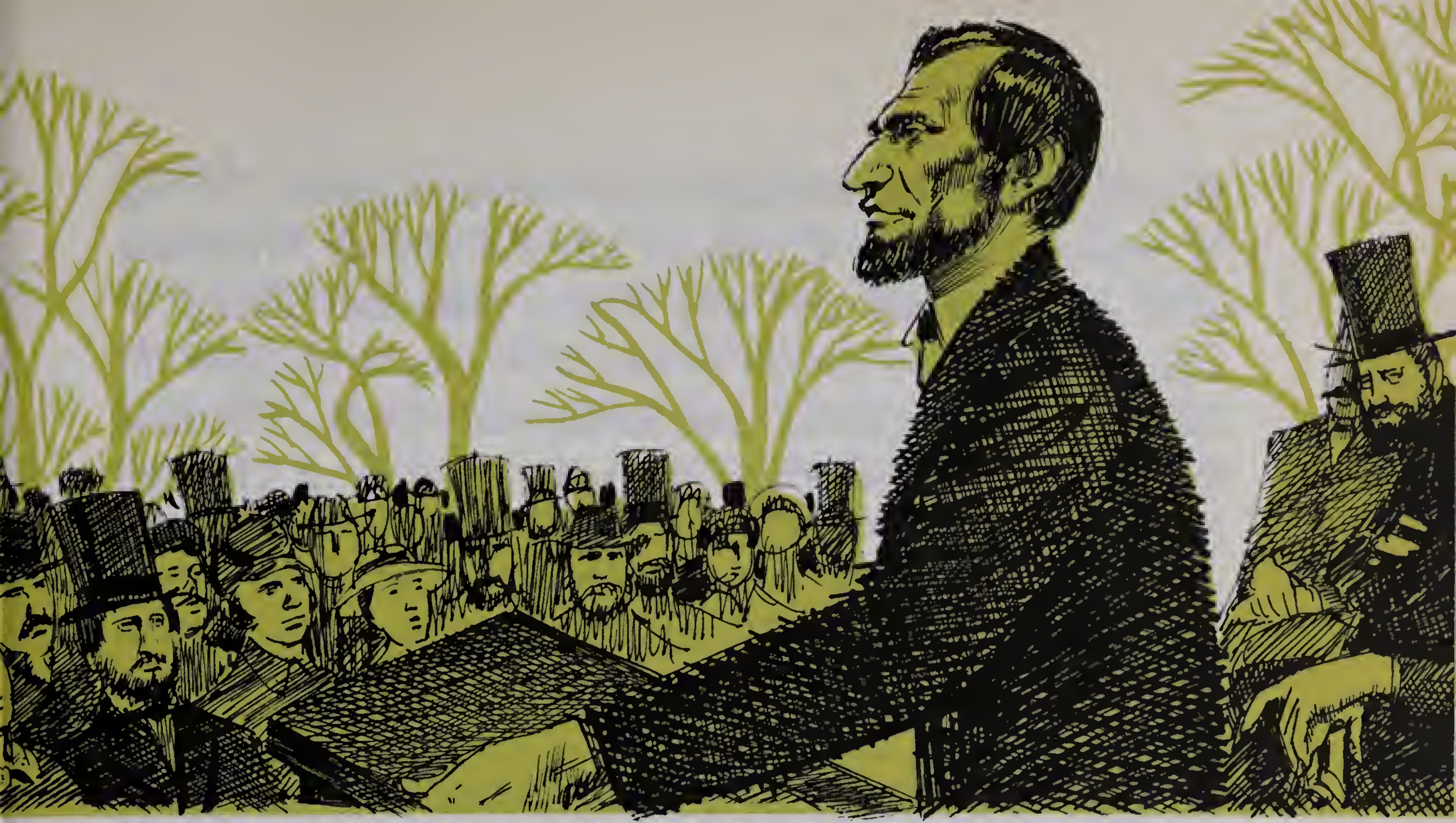
In the summer of 1863 Lee decided to carry the war into the enemy's territory. In July he met the Union forces at Gettysburg, Pennsylvania, and there, in a hard-fought battle, the North won a decisive victory. This was the turning-point of the war.

The Union government decided to dedicate a part of the battlefield as a national cemetery for the soldiers who had died there. People gathered in thousands to take part in the services. The speaker of the day was a famous orator, Edward Everett, who spoke for two hours to an audience which hung on every word. Then Lincoln stood up to speak to the people. He had been so busy that he had had little time to prepare his speech and had finished it on the train on his way to Gettysburg. Few people to-day know or care what Everett said, but Lincoln's short Gettysburg address will live forever.

"Fourscore and seven years ago our fathers brought forth upon this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal.

"Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battlefield of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field as a final resting place for those who here gave their lives that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this.

"But, in a larger sense, we cannot dedicate, we cannot consecrate, we cannot hallow this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it, far above our poor power to add or detract. The world will little note, nor long remember, what we say here; but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us, the living, rather, to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly ad-



Lincoln's short and simple address at Gettysburg is one of the famous speeches of history. The self-educated backwoods boy who became President was not only a strong President but one of the greatest speakers of all time.

vanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us, that from these honoured dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion; that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain; that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom, and that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth."

"FROM ATLANTA TO THE SEA"

In 1864, General William T. Sherman made his famous march "from Atlanta to the sea". After destroying Atlanta and forcing the inhabitants to leave the city, he set out boldly for Savannah on the Atlantic coast. He cut a trail sixty miles wide and three hundred miles long through Georgia. His army took what it wanted as it marched and destroyed nearly everything else. Cattle and horses were slaughtered, factories wrecked, crops carried off or burned, railways torn up, storehouses and public buildings burned. After capturing Savannah two days before Christmas, Sherman sent this message to President Lincoln, "I beg to present you as a Christmas gift the city of Savannah, with one hundred and fifty heavy guns and plenty of ammunition, also about twenty-five thousand bales of cotton." Little wonder that Southerners to-day still hate the name of Sherman and the song, "Marching Through Georgia."

THE SURRENDER

The raging battle through Georgia greatly weakened the South's military strength. In the opening months of 1865 Lee's army was described as "half-naked, half-starved, half-shod". Grant seized his opportunity and took Richmond, the Confederate capital. At last, on April 9, 1865, General Lee surrendered to General Grant at Appomattox, and the long years of fighting came to an end.

Every American child knows the story of the surrender. Grant was a chivalrous victor. When General Lee offered his sword in surrender, Grant would not accept it. He allowed the officers of the defeated Confederates to keep their horses. When Lee told him that his men had been living on parched corn for several days, the Union soldiers shared their rations with their former enemies. When the Union soldiers heard that the war was over, they began firing their guns in celebration. Grant stopped them, saying: "The war is over; the rebels are our countrymen again."

THE ASSASSINATION OF LINCOLN

Abraham Lincoln, the self-educated backwoodsman, had proved to be a wise and noble President. Through the terrible years of the war he had been responsible for the thousands of decisions which had to be made. He had shown steadfastness of purpose, great courage in the darkest days of the struggle, justice tempered with mercy, and great skill in winning others to his point of view. In the election of 1864 he won an overwhelming majority. His inaugural speech on March 4th, 1865, when he began his second term, included these famous words, "With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in, to bind up the nation's wounds, to care for him who shall have borne the battle and for his widow and his orphan — to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations."

Just six days after Lee surrendered to Grant, President and Mrs. Lincoln went to see a play in Ford's Theatre. The North was in a happy mood. The theatre was packed; the President's box was festooned with flags. When Lincoln came in, the orchestra played "Hail to the Chief", and the people cheered for their beloved President who had led them to victory.

A short time after the house lights went out, a shot was heard, and the President slumped forward in his seat. An actor, named John Wilkes Booth, had stolen into the box and shot the President in the back. Lincoln died at seven the next morning. Perhaps Secretary of War Stanton pronounced the most moving epitaph for his chief when he said, as he stood by the President's death-bed, "Now he belongs to the ages."

Lincoln's body was taken to Springfield, and all along the route people stood weeping as they watched the funeral train go by.

When the war ended, the government was controlled by the Republicans, or, as they called themselves, the Grand Old Party of the Union. Republicans still use the initials G.O.P. The tragic post-war years in the United States are known as the period of reconstruction.

Long before his death Lincoln had made it clear that he had no intention of punishing the Southern states. "We must extinguish our resentments," he declared, "if we expect to live in harmony and peace." The Southerners realized that Lincoln would have been a more generous victor than most of the Northerners. Jefferson Davis said, "Next to the defeat of the Confederacy, the heaviest blow that fell upon the South was the assassination of Lincoln."

Vice-President Andrew Johnson who succeeded Lincoln shared his ideas about generous treatment of the defeated states, but he was not as skilful as Lincoln in persuading others to accept his ideas. Many Northerners were eager for revenge, and these men, called the Radical Republicans, gained control of Congress. They set up army rule over the Confederate States until 1876, and took the vote away from all those who had held any government office before the war and had taken an oath to support the government of the United States, if they had broken their oath by supporting the Confederate cause.

When the Confederate soldiers returned to their homes, many found them in ruins. Their land had been neglected; their livestock had been taken by the Northern soldiers or killed; their slaves were gone. They had no money for it had all been used up in buying supplies and equipment for war, and few crops had been grown in most of the South. Laboriously the defeated Southerners set to work to rebuild a new South on the ruins of the old.

Many of the Southerners were very bitter about the war. They believed that the North had no right to force the will of the majority upon the minority. It was only natural that they would be resentful about the destruction carried out during Sherman's march. The harshness of the reconstruction years added fuel to the flames of their bitterness.

Suddenly four million Negroes had been set free. Most of them were woefully ignorant and had no idea how to think or act for themselves. They had been accustomed to depending on their masters. Many of them thought that, now they were no longer slaves, they would not have to work. Little did they realize that now they would not only have to work if they wanted to eat, but they would have to find jobs for themselves. Little wonder that some of them returned to their old masters to find out what to do.

The Republicans gave the Negroes a vote without ever finding out whether the Negroes had any idea about government. This was not wise. Hardly any of the slaves had learned to read or write; few had ever thought or talked about how they should be governed. Unscrupulous Northerners moved into the South and persuaded the Negroes to vote as they told them to vote. These men were called "carpet-baggers" because it was said that they carried all their worldly goods in their carpet travelling-bags. The carpet-baggers persuaded the Negroes to elect them to office, and, supported by the Negro vote, they passed many extravagant and ruinous measures.

Naturally the Southerners resented being governed by strangers from the North and by their former slaves, who in some states outnumbered the whites. The Southerners began to band together for protection. They organized secret societies like the Ku Klux Klan whose members dressed themselves in white sheets and went about at night terrorizing the Negroes and anyone who supported Republican rule. In some places white men with rifles took up positions at the polling booths and no Negro dared to vote. Another trick to deprive the Negro of his vote was the "grandfather clause", which stated that no one could vote whose grandfather had not voted. Ballot boxes were stuffed with votes against the Republicans. By various means the Democrats won control of the South. Eventually in all the Southern states the vote was taken away from the Negroes. The bitterness of the war years remained for a very long time and has not even now entirely disappeared.

What a lot of trouble that first ship that carried slaves to Jamestown in 1619 brought with it!

WHAT WAS BRITAIN'S ATTITUDE TO THE WAR?

When the war began many people in Britain sympathized with the South. Making cotton cloth was a very important industry in Britain and the manufacturers were afraid they might have to close their mills. Fortunately for them, they had a large supply of cotton on hand when the war began and even though the Northerners seized as many Southern ships as they could, some cotton made its way to Britain during the war. The British manufacturers found, too, that they could buy more cotton from India and Egypt than they had done in the past.

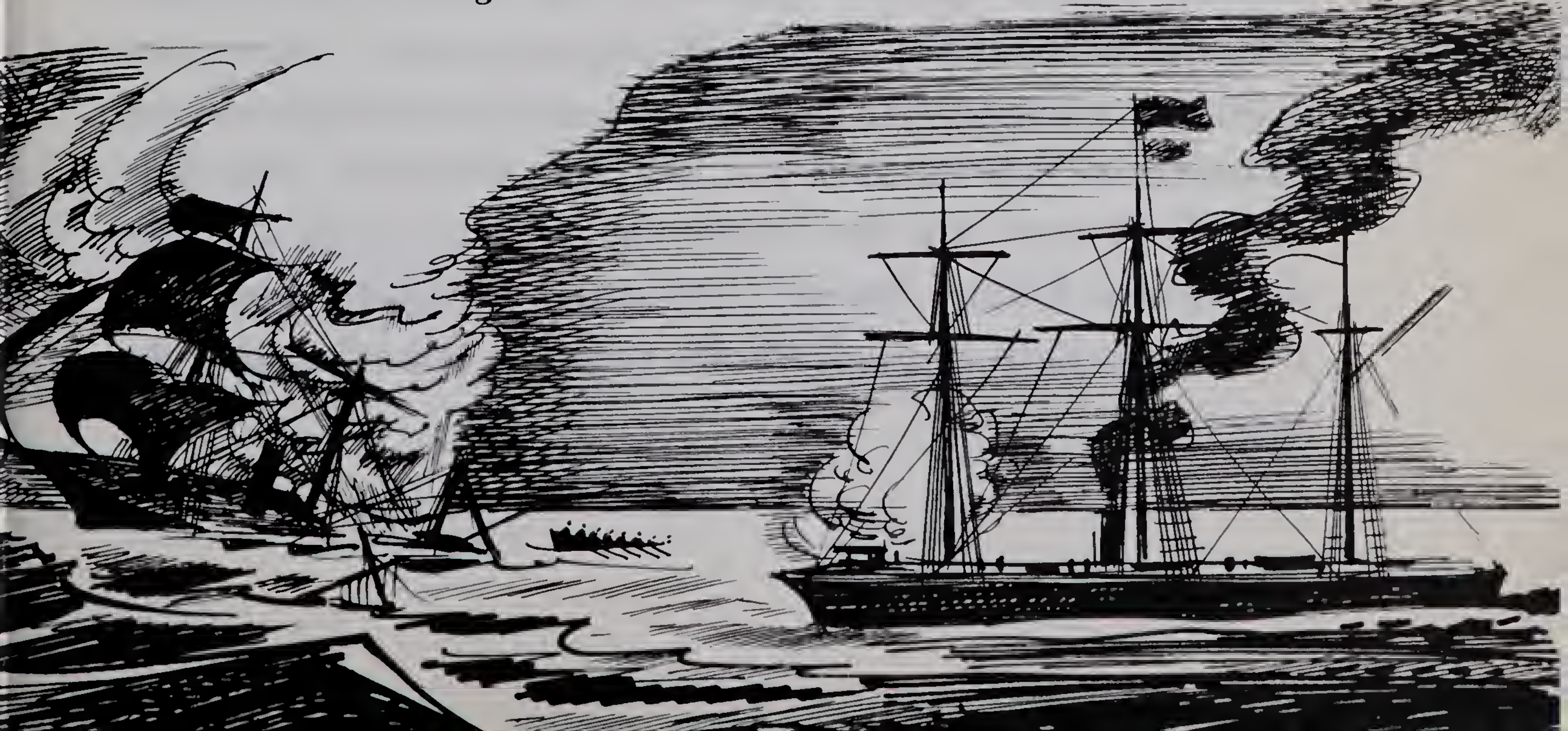
There was no reason for Britain to enter the war and good reason for keeping out of it. Some of the upper-class people had friends and relatives in the South and naturally sympathized with them, but the middle-class people and the working-class favoured the side that disapproved of slavery. When Lincoln freed the slaves, public opinion in favour of the North grew stronger.

The danger of war was greatest when an American ship stopped the *Trent*, a British ship sailing from Havana to England, and seized two Southerners who were on their way to Britain to try to get help for the South. This insult to Britain might easily have caused war, if Queen Victoria and Prince Albert had not persuaded the Prime Minister to revise the letter of protest he had prepared to send to President Lincoln.

The British became so alarmed at the prospect of war that they sent nearly 15,000 trained soldiers to Canada to defend it in case of trouble. The British Government thought that Canada should contribute to the cost of maintaining this army, but the Canadians said that, if war came, it would be Britain's war, not theirs, and refused to help pay to support the troops.

Although Britain was in theory neutral, ships built in British shipyards were supplied to the South. The British Government was either careless about allowing this or secretly sympathetic to the South. The most famous of these ships, the *Alabama,* slipped out of harbour with visitors on board for what everyone thought was a trial run. Instead of returning to harbour, the captain set his course for the West Indies where the ship was fitted with guns. The *Alabama* captured or sank over sixty-five Union

The *Alabama* did so much damage to northern ships that the North became bitter against the British for allowing the South to have this ship. As a result there was serious danger of war between Britain and the victorious North.



ships. After the war, the United States claimed compensation for the damage done by the *Alabama,* and though the Americans suggested that Britain might cede Canada to them as compensation, they settled for $15,500,000.

HOW DID THE CIVIL WAR AFFECT CANADA?

Many Canadians who disapproved of slavery favoured the North and some, either because they wanted to fight against slavery or because they were eager for adventure, enlisted in the Northern armies.

Always in war-time, prices go up and there is a great demand for food and other supplies for the army. By the Reciprocity Treaty of 1854, free trade in coal, fish, and the products of the forest and the farm had been established between the British North American Provinces and the United States. Farmers in Canada and lumbermen and fishermen in the Maritime Provinces received high prices for their products during the war. The more Americans felt the pinch of war-time expenses, the more resentful they became of the profits the Canadians were making. Some thought that the Reciprocity Treaty had always been better for the British provinces than for the United States. The treaty was to run for ten years and then either side might give notice that it was to end. In 1865 the Americans gave notice that they wanted to end it.

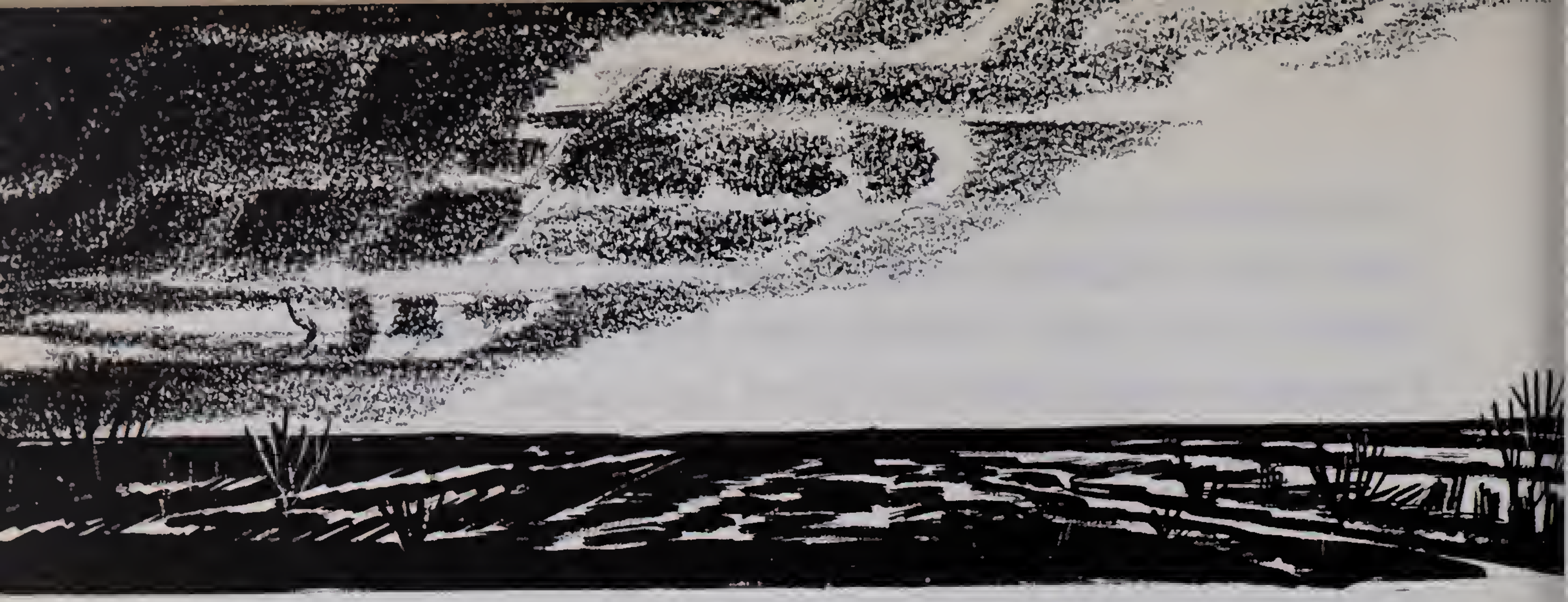
When the Northerners thought that Britain was sympathetic to the South and that there was real danger of war, many of them talked boldly of taking Canada. There was a fear in Canada that the victorious North might decide to keep on fighting and try to annex Canada. This fear was heightened by the knowledge that a group of Irishmen in the United States had formed a society called the Fenians to help Ireland win its freedom from British rule.

The Fenians held many meetings, made fiery speeches denouncing England, and let everyone know that they planned to invade Canada and New Brunswick. The Fenians by themselves could not have done very much, but it was possible that they might enlist the support of some Americans. In 1866 a group of Fenians did cross the border and defeat a small force of Canadians at Ridgeway. A Canadian volunteer force was soon gathered which drove the Fenians back, but for some years the Canadian settlements near the border lived in fear of further attacks. According to international law the Americans should not have allowed the Fenians to drill and plot against Canada, but, likewise, according to international law, the British should not have allowed the *Alabama* to leave a British shipyard to become a part of the Confederate navy.

23. The Wild West

> "Turn your face to the great West, and there build up a home and fortune."
>
> HORACE GREELEY: *To Aspiring Young Men*

In 1542 the Spanish explorer, Francisco Coronado, described the great plain west of the Mississippi as the "North American Desert", and over three hundred years later this country was still called "the desert" by the Americans who ventured to travel across it to the more promising lands along the Pacific. It was a land of few trees and very little rainfall, of baking heat in summer and biting cold in winter. Travellers to California or Oregon avoided the long dangerous journey across this bleak country, preferring, if they could afford it, to go by clipper



Few people dreamed that the barren western plains would some day become a land of prosperous cattle and sheep ranches, of irrigated farms and rich oil wells. To most travellers it was "the Great American Desert".

ships round Cape Horn. For a long time the western plains were left to the jack rabbit and the prairie dog, to the wolf and the coyote, to the Indian and the buffalo.

"The Wild West" has captured the imagination of people ever since it was opened up. Hundreds of stories and films tell of the bold days on the frontier, the land of the Indian warrior stealing noiselessly in the dark night to attack the white man's camp, of the prospector who struck it rich, of the lonely cowboy singing to the restless cattle as he rode herd at night, of the fierce bandit holding up stagecoaches and trains, of the venturesome farmer who dared to defy the cattleman's control over the wide grassy plains. These tales are full of violence, brawls in the saloons, gun fights in the streets, and brave sheriffs who outshoot the gunmen. Although many of these stories are exaggerated, there is some foundation in history for their plots. "The Wild West" was lawless; the Indians did attack the white men; gun fights, murders, and holdups were all too common.

THE INDIANS

Before the Spaniards brought horses to America, the Indians of the plains stalked the buffalo on foot. If they were good hunters and if they were lucky, they took home enough meat for the tribe; otherwise, they starved. As soon as the Indians caught and tamed the wild horses which were descended from those the Spaniards had brought to Mexico, they could go farther afield to hunt. Then they often came into conflict with other tribes that did not want anyone to enter their hunting-grounds. The braves who survived the fierce tribal wars became very skilful horsemen and fighters.

When settlers moved into the Indian territory east of the Mississippi, game became scarce and the Indians were driven farther west. Before long there were too many Indians on the plains in areas which often had not had enough game to feed the tribes which had been there for generations. Warriors fought fiercely to prevent other Indians or white men from trespassing on their hunting-grounds. Settlers who ventured across the plains travelled in large parties in the hope that they would be strong enough to defend themselves against Indian attacks. Scenes like those we see in Western films actually took place over and over again — covered wagons drawn up in a circle, men and women firing from under the wagons at Indians who circled madly around the camp shooting their deadly arrows at the unfortunate travellers. Many a family which had set out bravely for Oregon or California never reached its goal but lay scalped on the sun-baked prairie, perhaps to be given decent burial by the next party that came along the trail. "The desert," said Mark Twain, "is one prodigious graveyard."

The Indians were fighting for their lives. The plains were their home, their hunting-ground, and they knew that if white settlers came the game would disappear. If that happened, the Indians would starve, for they knew no other way of life.

The American Government forced many Indian tribes to agree to treaties which limited them to reservations. Since there was not enough game on the reservation to support them, the unfortunate Indians had to choose between starving on the reservation or taking a chance of being killed by the white men on the open plain. Naturally they fought fiercely against the people who were invading their territory. The government sent troops to force the Indians to stay on the reservations but very often the American army met defeat at the hands of the red men.

"We were surprised, incredulous, almost offended," said a visitor to Kansas in 1854, "when a young officer . . . asserted that our mounted men, though armed with revolvers, were in general not a match in close combat for the mounted Indians with their bows and arrows."

The Indians were superb horsemen. They could ride with both hands free to handle their bows and arrows. They clung with their legs to their horses, while they dropped their bodies down to the side of the horse and shot their barbed arrows from under the horse's neck or body. Their aim was deadly. Their blood-curdling war-cries often stampeded the army horses. An Indian warrior could ride so fast, one soldier reported, that it made "any certain aim with the revolver impossible, while his arrows are discharged at man and horse more rapidly than even a revolver can be fired."

Between the years 1869 and 1876 over two hundred battles were fought between the army and the Indians of the plains. The American army lost many brave men and thousands of Indians were killed.

It was not, however, only the power of the American army that destroyed the Indian's way of life on the plains. White men began to hunt the buffalo to provide food for the builders of the railway lines and for skins. "Buffalo Bill" Cody earned his name by killing some 4,000 buffalo in eighteen months. An eastern company began to buy buffalo skins for leather. By 1878 the buffalo had almost disappeared from the plains, and many Indians starved.

The last fight was in 1890 when the troops broke up a Sun Dance on a Sioux reservation. The American Government had forbidden the Indians to hold these dances, and when the troops appeared the Indians fled. The soldiers followed and in the fight of Wounded Knee killed most of the half-starved survivors of the fierce Sioux tribe which had once been the terror of the plains.

About this time Congress decided to give a grant of 160 acres to every Indian family. This policy, however, did not solve the problem. Land speculators cheated many of the Indians into selling their land far below its value. Even those who kept their land had a hard time for they were not farmers by inclination or by training. The former lords of the plains were reduced to a life of poverty and misery.

Fortunately the American Government now has a fairer, more humane policy for its Indian citizens and the Indian population has begun to increase.

PROSPECTORS AND MINERS

When the gold rush in California ended, the prospectors and miners sought new areas where they might find a fortune. As we learned in Chapter 14, some of them joined the gold rush on the Fraser River and in the Cariboo country in British Columbia. Others struck east from California into Colorado, Nevada, Idaho, and Montana.

Eager crowds poured into Colorado when in 1858 the first claim was staked there. Experienced miners came from California, and "greenhorns" came from the midwest, some with their covered wagons carrying the slogan, "Pike's Peak or Bust". When little gold was found there, many of these fortune hunters departed, their wagons now labelled "Pike's Peak and Busted".

The next year prospectors in Nevada discovered a rich silver deposit, the Comstock Lode, which eventually gave them over $300,000,000 worth of silver. Gold near Boise, Idaho! Gold at Tombstone, Arizona! Gold at Deadwood in the Black Hills of South Dakota! Gold, silver, and copper at Butte, Montana, which the miners claimed was "the richest hill on earth"! Ugly mining towns with flimsy shacks or tents the only homes of the miners and brightly lighted saloons where card sharks waited to cheat the miners out of their hard-won gold! Lawlessness, violence, murder, drunkenness – these were all too common in the early days of the mining camps.

Some of the miners and several of the business men who provided the money to operate the mines made great fortunes and retired to enjoy their wealth. Others stayed to settle in the new territory. Most of them listened eagerly for news of another gold strike, ready to join the next gold rush wherever it might take them. Many of the mines were soon worked out and the once notorious mining camps that had grown up beside them became "ghost towns". In the towns where the mines are still producing ore, law and order have prevailed now for many years. The miners to-day are mostly family men living in decent houses. Schools and libraries have been built, recreation centres established, and moving picture theatres opened in which they can see films which tell of the "rooting, tooting, roaring days" of the old "Wild West".

COWBOYS

Between the mining country of the Rocky Mountains and the Mississippi River lay the great plains which for many years were the land of the cowboys. When the Americans went into Texas they found herds of wild cattle, descendants of animals that had strayed north from the great Spanish ranches in Mexico. The plains were not a desert, for the thick grass was excellent for cattle grazing. Before long the grassy plains from Texas to Montana and into Alberta became one great cattle range.

In stories and films the cowboy seems a picturesque romantic figure in his wide hat, his bright kerchief knotted about his neck, his leather chaps, his high-heeled boots, with his six-shooter at his belt and his lasso within reach. We think of him riding his faithful horse, singing to the restless herds at night on the quiet prairie, or sleeping under the stars with his saddle for his pillow. It sounds like a fine free life. Actually it was hard work for very little pay. Sleeping under the stars sounds romantic but sleeping on the hard ground is usually anything but comfortable. The ranchers gave their cowboys low wages and their keep, hard beds in a bare bunkhouse, and coarse food often badly cooked in a rough cookhouse. The cowboys sang:

> "Oh, it's beans and bacon most every day —
> I'd as soon be eating prairie hay."

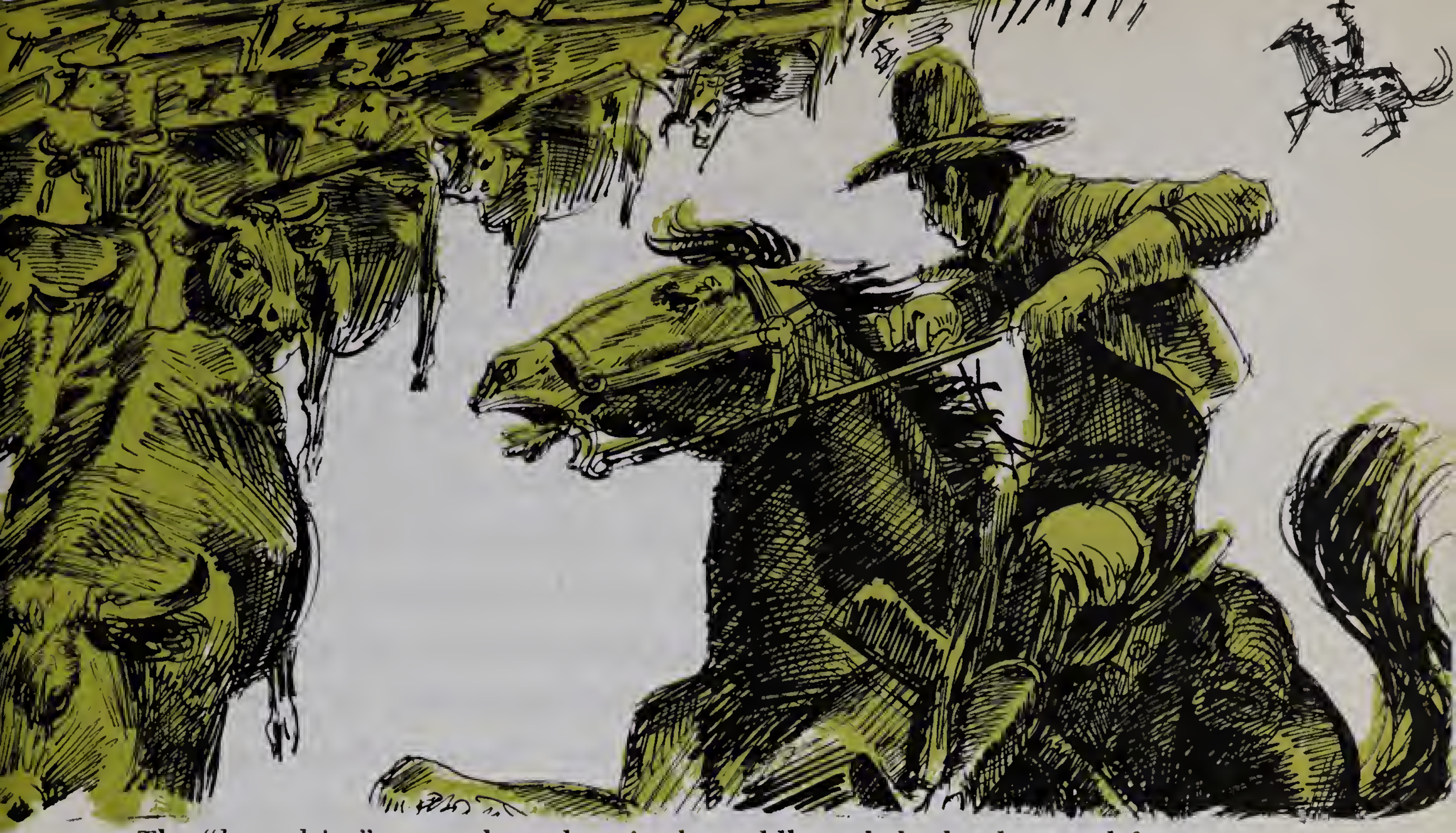
The cowboy copied his costume from the Mexican cattlemen who had been riding the range for generations and had learned what was the most suitable garb for the life they lived. Even the words *sombrero, chaps, lasso,* and *lariat,* were taken over from the Mexicans. The *sombrero,* the "five-gallon" hat so famous in cow country, sheltered the cowboy from the hot sun and was almost as good as an umbrella in the rain. The leather chaps (from the Spanish word *chaparajos*) protected his legs from thorns. The tight jeans were comfortable for long days in the saddle. The narrow high-heeled boots kept his foot from slipping in the stirrup as he leaped on his horse.

The bright neckerchief protected his neck from the heat of the sun and could be tied over his face when the dust was thick. Like the Mexicans the cowboys used high western saddles. Cowboys were proud of their costumes. Their neckerchiefs were usually gay in colour, their spurs were silver, their saddles were decorated with silver, if they had money enough, and their boots and hats were expensive for they had to be of good quality to stand the hard wear on the range in all weathers.

Although the Texan longhorns were small and provided rather tough beef, there was a market for them if they could be taken to the stockyards. Enterprising men began to round them up, brand them, and drive them north through the good grazing plains to market. At first the cowboys drove their herds all the way to Illinois. Later, when the railways began to penetrate the West, cattle towns grew up in Missouri and later in Kansas.

The cattle ranchers prospered. The horses the cowboys rode were the descendants of horses which had wandered north from Mexico, and the food that the cattle ate was the wild grass of the prairie. Cattle delivered at the stockyards usually sold for many times what it had cost to breed and feed them.

Every spring came a round-up when the young cattle were lassoed, thrown on the ground, and branded with the mark of the owner. In the fall came the round-up for the "long drive" to market. Five or six cowboys would take as many as a thousand head of cattle across the plains. Two would ride at the head of the herd to direct them, while the others rode along beside the procession to drive strays back to the herd or urge the slow ones forward. The "long drives" sometimes took two months. It was not an easy job. The cowboys sang:



The "*long drive*" meant long days in the saddle and the hard ground for a bed. Even at night the cowboys had to take turns "riding herd" to see that the cattle did not stampede.

"I'm up in the mornin' afore daylight,
And afore I'm asleep the moon shines bright."

Handling a herd of hungry, thirsty, frightened cattle demanded skill and hard riding. The cowboys had to keep the herd moving but they had to be careful not to drive them too fast or the cattle would be too thin when they reached the stockyards. Sometimes they had trouble finding water as the water holes they had used the previous year often dried up. They had to be on guard against Indians and rustlers who tried to steal their cattle. The cowboys had to find a good place to halt for the night because the cattle needed a good feed every day if they were to reach the stockyards in good condition. For two hours after the drive halted, the cattle devoured the prairie grass and then settled down to sleep. About midnight they stumbled up again and for another two hours wandered about munching grass. There was always danger of a stampede. If any unusual sound or smell frightened the cattle, they would all rush away, panicstricken, and precious time would be lost while the cowboys struggled to round the herd up again. Because the cowboys believed that the cattle were less likely to stampede if they heard the sound of a human voice, they used to sing to them, especially as they rode herd at night. Perhaps you have noticed the slow mournful tunes of most cowboy songs, for example, "Bury Me Not on the Lone Prairie", "Home on the Range", or "Git Along, Little Dogies, Git Along". These songs were meant to be lullabies for the cattle to keep them quietly nibbling away on the range.

The most popular route for the "long drives" was the Chisholm Trail which led almost straight north from San Antonio, Texas, to Abilene, Kansas.

"Come along, boys, and listen to my tale,
I'll tell you my troubles on the old Chisholm Trail.

"Coma ti yi youpy, youpy ya, youpa ya,
Coma ti yi youpy, youpy ya.

"I started up the trail October twenty-third,
I started up the trail with the 2-U herd."

This song grew to have a great many verses, as cowboys added rhymes from their own experiences.

At the end of the trail the steers were sold and loaded on the railway cars. The cowboys drew their pay and swaggered into the town, where they usually spent their money recklessly, most of it on drinking and gambling. When their money was all gone, they made their way, weary and broke, back to the ranch.

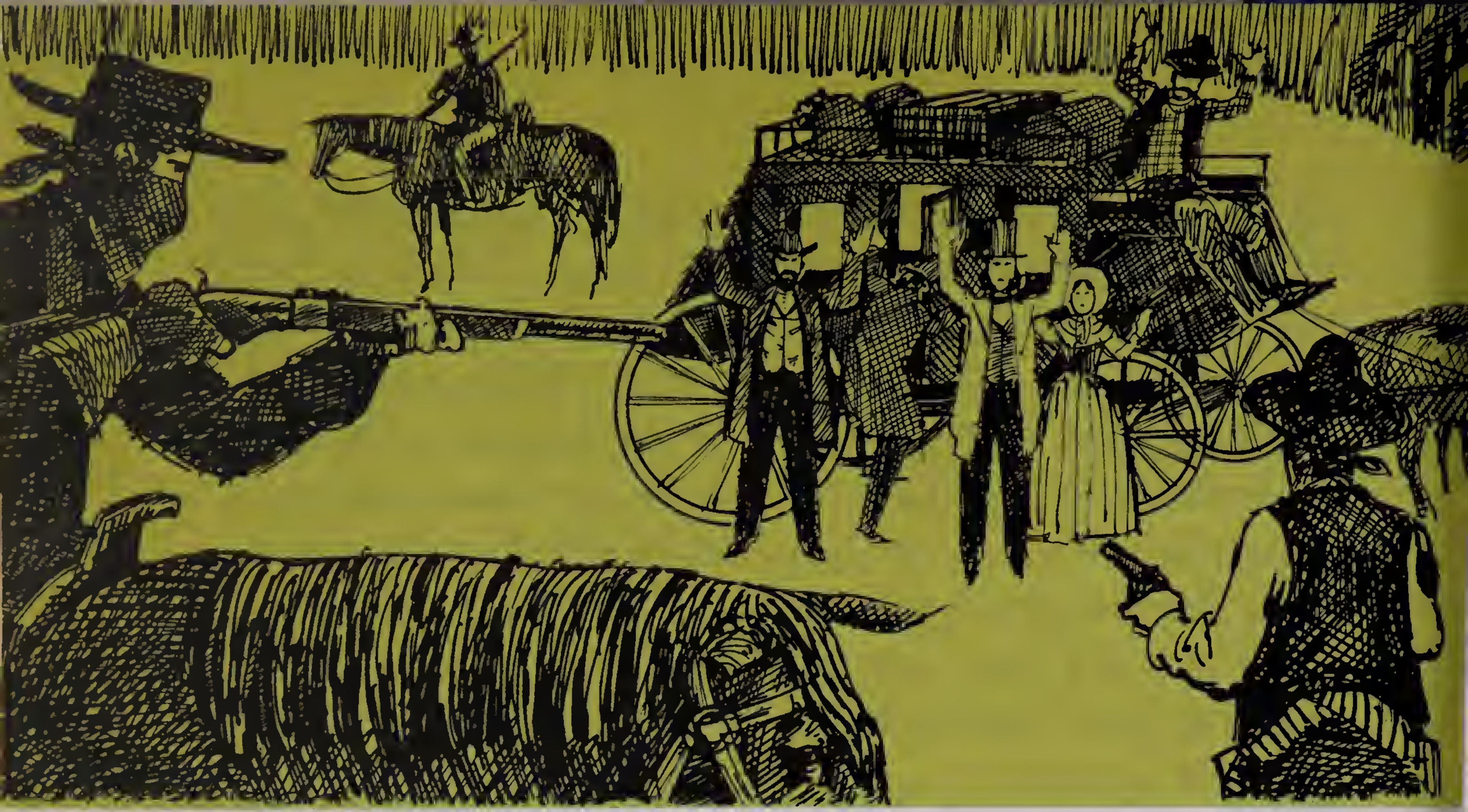
But the open range did not last very long. As more people came into the West, the competition for water rights became serious. Some ranchers fenced in streams and water-holes and defended them with drawn guns against the cowboys who were driving herds from other ranches along the trail. Cattle-rustling became more profitable and a greater threat to the cattle-men. Worst of all, in 1862 the government passed a Homestead Act and farmers and sheep-herders came to take up land. This alarmed the cattle-ranchers and they tried to get title to as many of the 160-acre homesteads as they could, even using fake names or the names of their cowboys to file applications. They did everything in their power to discourage settlers, often bullying them into abandoning their homesteads by burning their buildings or even driving them out at the point of a gun.

The farmers who stuck to their homesteads said the ranchers should fence the cattle in and the ranchers declared that, if any fencing was to be done, the farmer should do it. Since there were few trees for fencing, and fence rails brought from the east were very expensive, this was impossible for the farmers until barbed wire was introduced in 1874. It was barbed wire that finally brought the old open range to an end.

Meanwhile the railways had been pushing steadily westward and the ranchers no longer needed to take their herds on the "long drive" to get them to market.

THE OVERLAND MAIL

The people on the west coast found the slow mail service a great hardship. Mail came to San Francisco only about once a month by steamboat from the Isthmus of Panama and it had been a long time on the way before it reached the miners eager for news of "the folks back home". It sometimes took the postmaster two days to sort it. By the time he was ready to hand it out there were lines in front of the post office even longer than the lines that form to buy tickets for our Grey Cup games.



Masked bandits often lay in wait for the stage-coach, which frequently carried shipments of gold. Sometimes if they could rob the coach of a shipment of gold they would spare the passengers.

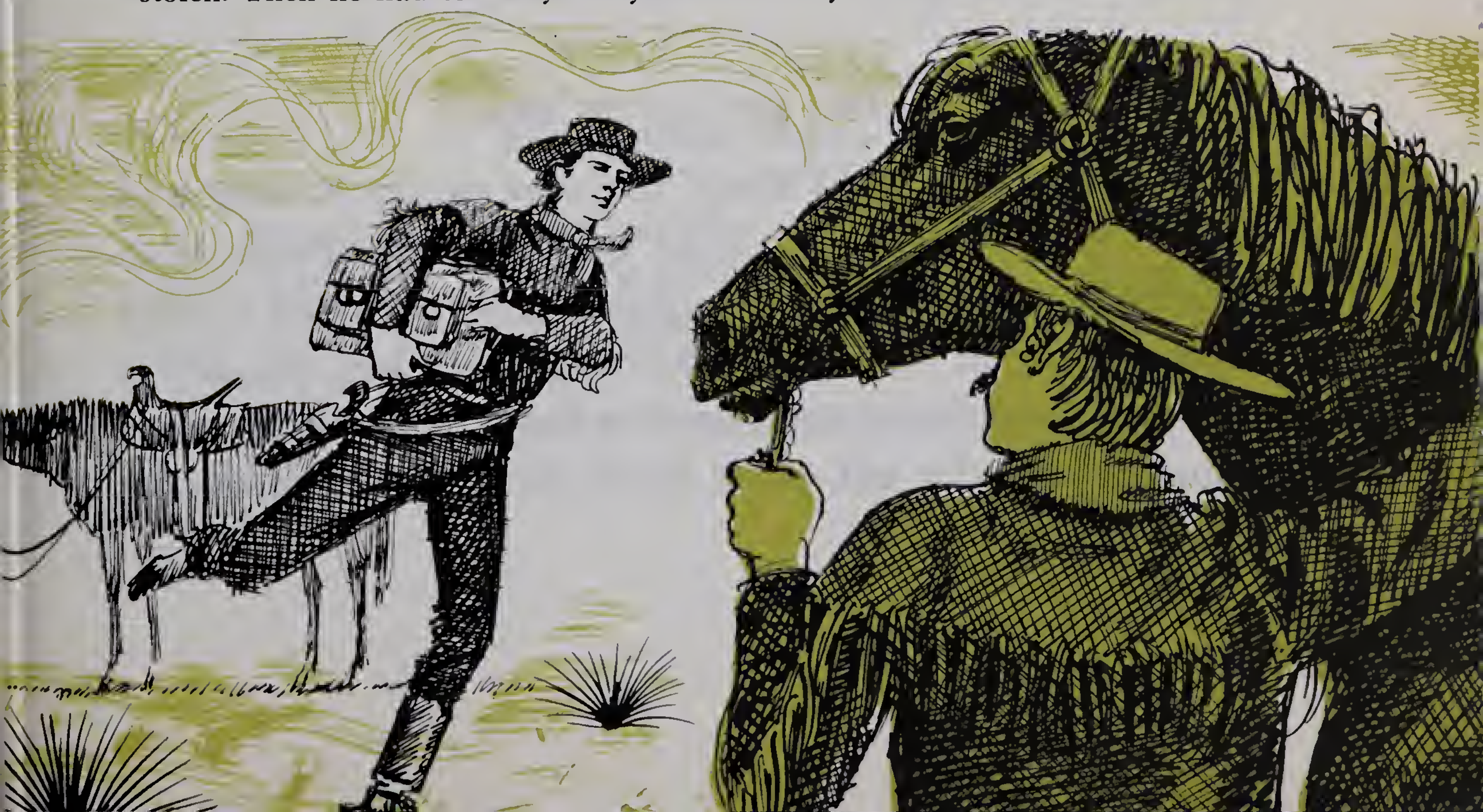
In 1858 the American Government established an overland mail service by way of Texas and southern California. Westerners began to ask for a mail service through the central part of the country and companies were formed to set up stage-coach lines that would carry mail, express, and passengers from the end of the railway to the Pacific Coast. At first light wagons were used, but before long the companies provided larger stage-coaches which carried nine passengers inside and two outside with the driver.

Day and night the coaches travelled at top speed over the rough roads, stopping only long enough to change horses and allow the passengers to buy a meal. Even at top speed it usually took twenty-one days to go from St. Louis to San Francisco. The journey was not only long and uncomfortable; it was dangerous. Drivers always had their guns within reach and most of the passengers also carried guns. They never knew when they might hear the bloodcurdling war-cries of Indians or when bandits might shout "Hands Up" and seize the mail and rob the passengers of all they possessed.

There was such a demand for faster mail service that Alexander Majors decided to establish a pony express service from the end of the railroad at St. Joseph, Missouri, to Sacramento, California. Majors had made a fortune hauling freight across the plains by ox-teams. For his pony express he bought five hundred strong, swift ponies, and hired about a hundred riders. Then he built more than a hundred stations along the route where the riders could change horses.

Bold riders on swift ponies galloped along the trail, their mail-bags slung over the saddle. At the relay stations agents watched for the cloud of dust which heralded the coming of the mail and they had fresh horses saddled and ready. The rider leaped off his pony, jerked off the mail-bags, threw them on the fresh pony, sprang on, and was away in seconds. Each rider galloped about a hundred miles before he stopped for rest and threw his mail-bags to the next man in the relay team. Small men were chosen for the pony express so that the ponies would not have to carry too much weight. The mail-bags usually weighed only about twenty pounds. Letters were written on the

Riders of the pony express changed horses about every fifteen miles. Sometimes the rider found the station man killed by the Indians and the horses stolen. Then he had to hurry away on his weary horse to the next station.



thinnest paper that could be bought and wrapped in oiled silk for protection before they were put in the bags.

The pony express riders had to be men of good character for Majors made them promise not to use bad language, not to get drunk, not to gamble, and not to treat animals cruelly while they worked for him. The men had to be strong and hardy in order to ride the long distances through the blazing heat of summer and the blizzards of winter. They had to be brave for they might be attacked by Indians or held up by bandits.

"Buffalo Bill" Cody was the most famous of the pony express riders. Once when he was carrying a lot of money in the mail he thought he might be held up by bandits so he stuffed an extra set of bags with paper and hid the ones holding the money under his saddle blanket. When two bandits suddenly appeared on the lonely road and ordered him to hand over the mail-bags, he threw the bags stuffed with paper at the bandits, spurred his horse to a full gallop, and was away with the mail before the bandits found out how he had fooled them.

It cost five dollars to send a letter by the pony express, but even so Alexander Majors lost a million dollars on his venture. The last run was made in November, 1861. By that time the telegraph wires had reached California and the pony express was no longer needed.

THE END OF AN ERA

The days of the "Wild West" are over except in song and story. Settlers poured in from the east; immigrants from Europe, hoping for greater opportunities to make a good living, came in thousands. Railways stretched out across the prairie, barbed wire fenced in the farms and the cattle ranches, and the old cattle trails disappeared under the plough of the farmer. Villages, towns, and cities sprang up and the blow of the hammer and the buzz of the saw resounded in the land where once were heard the pounding feet of the buffalo, the war-whoop of the Indians, the song of the cowboy, and the bellowing of the cattle. Churches and schools were established and doctors, lawyers, and storekeepers came to serve the growing population.

Soon many of the territories could boast the population of 60,000 which was required for admission to the Union as states. Kansas and Nevada had become states during the American Civil War and nine more states were admitted before 1900. They were:

Nebraska, 1867
Colorado, 1876
North Dakota, 1889
South Dakota, 1889
Montana, 1889
Washington, 1889
Idaho, 1890
Wyoming, 1890
Utah (the forty-fifth state), 1896.

For Further Study

1. Present a scene in which a southern planter tells a friend about Eli Whitney's great invention, the cotton gin, and predicts a tremendous development of the cotton industry as a result of the invention.
2. On a map of the United States mark the cotton-growing areas in 1860.

3. Make a mural presenting the cotton industry of Virginia, from the cotton fields to the loading of bales on ships for export.

4. Imagine you are a Negro slave who escaped to Canada by the "Underground Railway". Describe your experiences to a group of sympathetic Canadians.

5. Make a mural showing scenes in the life of Abraham Lincoln. You can find good material in any American history textbook, or in *Abraham Lincoln* by J. Daugherty or in *Abraham Lincoln's World* by G. Foster.

6. Present a scene in a Canadian tavern in 1863 in which a group of men are discussing the American War between the States.

7. Write an account which might have appeared in a Canadian newspaper at the time when the Fenians were threatening to invade Canada.

8. Imagine you are the widow of a southern planter who fought in the war. Your plantation was pillaged by Northern armies; all your slaves are gone but one who has refused to leave you. Write a letter to a cousin in England who has asked you to tell her how you fared during the war.

9. Make a pictorial map of the United States west of the Mississippi, marking in the areas where settlers had taken up land, the places where gold and silver were mined, the cattle-range country, and the Chisholm Trail from San Antonio, Texas, to Abilene, Kansas.

10. "Give me the making of the songs for the nation and I care not who makes its laws." We can learn a great deal about the people of earlier times through their songs. Groups might prepare programmes to present to the class. One group could collect Negro songs – "Swing Low, Sweet Chariot", "My Darling Nellie Gray", and songs about the Negroes – Stephen Foster's "Old Black Joe", and " 'Way Down upon the Swanee River". Another group could find songs of the Civil War period and songs relating to the Civil War – "The Battle Hymn of the Republic", "John Brown's Body", "Dixie", "Tenting Tonight on the Old Camp Ground", "Marching Through Georgia". Another group might sing pioneer songs – "Oh Susanna" is a well-known one – and cowboy songs.

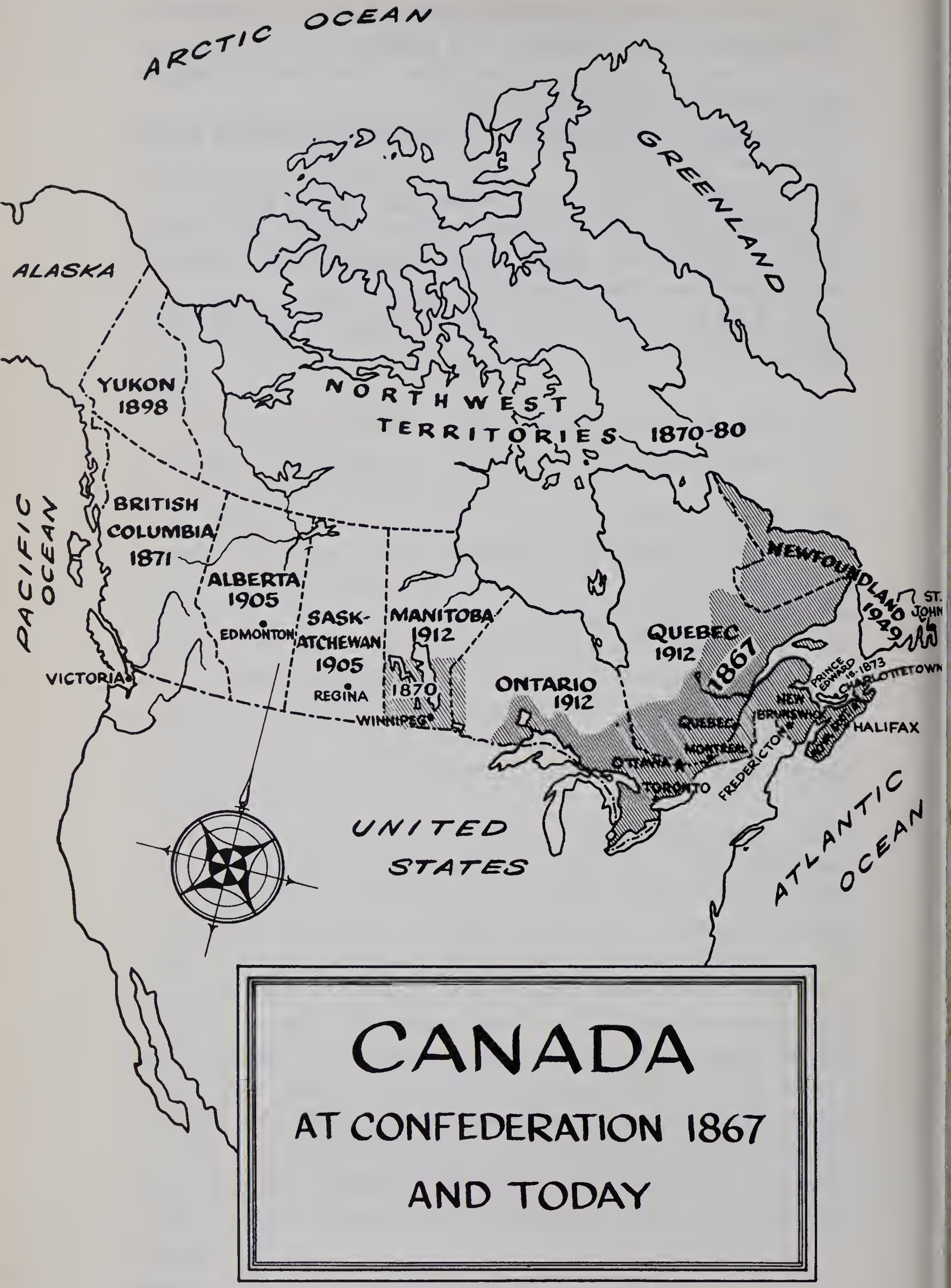
11. Make a mural showing a party of Indians attacking a covered wagon encampment on the plains.

12. Present a scene in a store when a prospector comes in and reports that he has found gold.

13. Make a mural depicting the life of the cowboys in the days of the "long drive".

14. "Buffalo Bill" Cody wrote the story of his life. D. S. Garst has written a book entitled *Buffalo Bill.* Some members of the class might read these books and report on the adventures of this enterprising young man.

15. Add the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac* to your *Book of Ships.*


ARCTIC OCEAN
GREENLAND
ALASKA
YUKON 1898
NORTHWEST TERRITORIES 1870-80
BRITISH COLUMBIA 1871
PACIFIC OCEAN
ALBERTA 1905
EDMONTON
SASKATCHEWAN 1905
REGINA
MANITOBA 1912
1870
WINNIPEG
VICTORIA
ONTARIO 1912
QUEBEC 1912
1867
NEWFOUNDLAND 1949
ST. JOHN
PRINCE EDWARD IS. 1873
CHARLOTTETOWN
NEW BRUNSWICK
HALIFAX
QUEBEC
MONTREAL
OTTAWA
TORONTO
FREDERICTON
UNITED STATES
ATLANTIC OCEAN

CANADA

AT CONFEDERATION 1867

AND TODAY

VI. *Confederation—A New Nation is Born*

24. Ten Provinces To-day

> "But thou, my Country, dream not thou!
> Wake and behold how night is done,—
> How on thy breast, and o'er thy brow,
> Bursts the uprising sun!"
>
> CHARLES G. D. ROBERTS: *Canada*

TEN PROVINCES TO-DAY

Until 1867 British North America consisted of a number of separate colonies which had little connection one with another, except that they all were under the British flag.

On the Atlantic seaboard there were Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island. Along the St. Lawrence and on the shores of the Great Lakes were the Canadas, Lower Canada, now known as Quebec, and Upper Canada, now known as Ontario. In the interior were the vast territories of the Hudson's Bay Company, stretching from Hudson Bay to the Rockies. Here to-day are the provinces of Manitoba, Alberta, and Saskatchewan. West of the Rockies, on Vancouver Island and on the West Coast, there were a few small settlements and a few Hudson's Bay posts, the beginnings of the province of British Columbia.

Four provinces were united in 1867 to form the Dominion of Canada. Three more joined within the next six years, but it was not until 1949, eighty-two years after the act establishing the Dominion of Canada was passed, that the tenth of the provinces became a member of the confederation.

THE PROVINCES OF CANADA

Quebec, Ontario, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick,	1867
Manitoba,	1870
British Columbia,	1871
Prince Edward Island,	1873
Alberta and Saskatchewan,	1905
Newfoundland,	1949

25. A Vision of a Great Nation

> "Theirs was the vision, theirs the faith far-seeing,
>   And theirs the force that forged our unity,
> That called a nation into instant being
>   And stretched its boundaries from sea to sea."
>   CHARLES G. D. ROBERTS: *These Three Score Years*

Confederation was not a new idea. Many thoughtful men had, from time to time, suggested that the colonies of British North America should be united under one government. The Thirteen Colonies to the south had been separate colonies, each with its own governor and Assembly, until they united to win their independence from Great Britain. The United States was growing and prospering. The people of Canada and the Maritimes did not want to unite to win independence from Britain. They were happy to remain a part of the British Empire. Nevertheless many citizens thought that there were good reasons for forming a federation something like that of the United States, in which each province would look after its own affairs, and also send representatives to a parliament which would look after the affairs of the whole country.

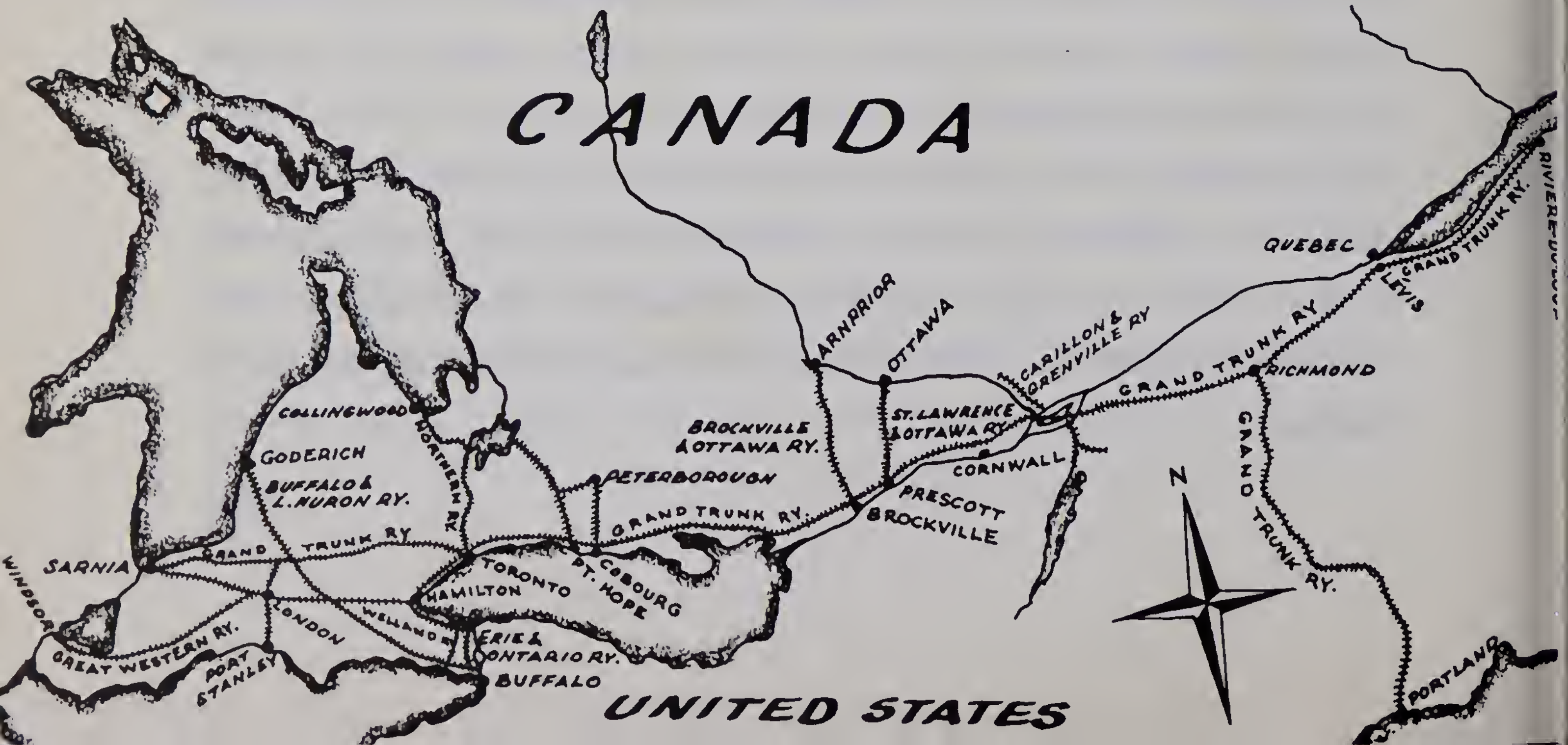
Several of the United Empire Loyalists had urged that the colonies should unite. Lord Durham, when he proposed the union of Upper and Lower Canada, had suggested that some day there should be one government for all the colonies. People talked of confederation, but for a long time it was only a dream which might some day come true in the far-distant future. And, of course, there were plenty of people who thought it was nonsense even to dream that a few scattered provinces would ever become a nation extending from sea to sea, from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

There were many difficulties to overcome. The population was small. Great stretches of forest or plain separated the settlements. In the Maritime Provinces and in British Columbia almost all the settlers lived on the sea-coast, or on the rivers near the sea-coast. There was an unsettled wilderness between the Maritime Provinces and Canada, and the difficult barrier of rock and forest of the Canadian Shield north of the Great Lakes between Canada and the settlement in the Red River Valley. Travellers from Canada to the Red River Valley had to go through the United States or follow the old fur-traders' route by the Great Lakes, the Winnipeg River, Lake Winnipeg, and up the Red River. On the western plains there were only a few fur-trading posts and wandering tribes of Indians. Communication with British Columbia was either by a long and very difficult journey through the towering Rockies, or by ocean voyage round Cape Horn at the southern tip of South America. There was no Panama Canal in those days.

In the 1860's Canada was well into the railway boom and everyone believed that more railways would bring much greater prosperity. Several short lines had been built and the Grand Trunk stretched from Rivière du Loup through Lower Canada and Upper Canada to Sarnia on Lake Huron. The great need now, the people of the colonies believed, was for a railway to connect the Maritime Provinces with Canada. They hoped that an intercolonial railway would build up a thriving trade, with Canada shipping grain to the Maritimes, and the Maritimes shipping to Canada not only their own fish and coal but also the sugar and rum they brought from the West Indies.

Unfortunately a large area of American territory, the northern part of the State of Maine, separates western New Brunswick from Quebec. Any railway built through all-British territory would have to go through northern New Brunswick and along the south shore of the St. Lawrence to Rivière du Loup, to make connections with the Grand Trunk. A large part of the line would be through territory in which there were few settlers and therefore little revenue for the railway. The line would be long and it would cost a lot of money to build every mile and keep it in good condition. It would be impossible for a long line through all-British territory to compete with the

The Railways of Canada in 1860.


CANADA
COLLINGWOOD
GODERICH
BUFFALO & L. HURON RY.
NORTHERN RY.
SARNIA
WINDSOR
GRAND TRUNK RY.
GREAT WESTERN RY.
LONDON
PORT STANLEY
WELLAND
TORONTO
HAMILTON
PT. HOPE
COBOURG
ERIE & ONTARIO RY.
BUFFALO
PETERBOROUGH
BROCKVILLE & OTTAWA RY.
GRAND TRUNK RY.
ARNPRIOR
OTTAWA
ST. LAWRENCE & OTTAWA RY.
CARILLON & GRENVILLE RY
CORNWALL
PRESCOTT
BROCKVILLE
GRAND TRUNK RY
QUEBEC
LEVIS
GRAND TRUNK RY.
RICHMOND
RIVIERE DU LOUP
GRAND TRUNK RY.
N
PORTLAND
UNITED STATES

shorter line already built from Montreal to Portland, Maine. Since it seemed quite possible during the American Civil War that there might be war between Britain and the United States, neither the British Government nor British investors were interested in a line through American territory.

Many of the people in the colonies, especially in the Maritime Provinces, thought that, if the colonies united, they could build a railway which would connect the Maritime Provinces with Canada and even, in time, extend out into the far west.

THEY WERE AFRAID BRITAIN MIGHT LOSE THE WEST

As the fertile lands of eastern Canada filled up, the young men began to look elsewhere for good farm land. Many of them went to the United States and this distressed the Canadians for they wanted their own country to grow and expand. By this time the people of the east knew that there was good land in the Red River Valley and beyond it. They were afraid that if the Canadians did not occupy the land the Americans would.

The people of the Red River Valley were beginning to resent the Hudson's Bay Company's monopoly of the fur trade and some of them were smuggling furs to the United States and trading with the Americans. Quite a number of them thought that their settlement would be better off if it was part of the United States. This encouraged those Americans who hoped that some day the whole of the West would be taken over by the United States.

After the Oregon Boundary Treaty in 1846 American settlers poured into Oregon. There could be no doubt that some of them would move across the border into British Columbia.

There was no time to spare. Canadians who dreamed of a nation stretching "from sea to sea" realized that they must take action at once. Canada must gain control of the lands in the West that were controlled by the Hudson's Bay Company. Men of vision, inspired by their dream of a Canada stretching from the Atlantic to the Pacific, looked forward to the day when British Columbia would join the eastern provinces. They realized that, however difficult it might be, they must some day build a railway to connect British Columbia with Canada. British Columbia was very far from Great Britain, very far from Canada, and very close to the neighbouring states of Washington and Oregon. The miners who had joined in the gold rush had come from all over the world and few of them cared what flag flew over them as long as they could find gold. If the eastern provinces worked together, they might be able to build a railway to connect the west coast with the east, and British Columbia might be persuaded to join them.

THEY WANTED TO EXPAND THEIR TRADE

The provinces were growing steadily and producing more goods for sale. From 1854 to 1866 they were able to sell grain and lumber from Canada and fish from the Maritime Provinces to the United States under the terms of the Reciprocity Treaty. When the Americans gave notice in 1865 that the Treaty was to end in a year's time, the business men realized that they must look for other markets. What was more natural than to try to increase trade with the other British North American colonies? At that time customs duties were still imposed on goods coming to one province from another. Confederation would provide for free trade.

To-day Canada and the United States are good neighbours. Twice they have fought side by side in World Wars. They have worked together to maintain peace. But it was not always so. The descendants of the Loyalists who had had to leave the United States after the American War of Independence feared their former neighbours. Some of them, remembering the stories their grandparents had told them of their sufferings, hated the Americans. Many Americans thought that they should add Canada to their country. The boundaries were not carefully defined, and there was always a possibility of war over them.

At no time since the War of 1812-1814 had the danger of war with the United States been so great as it was at the very moment when the leaders in British North America were working to establish a federation of the provinces. As we have seen in Chapter 22, Britain and the United States came to the brink of war during and immediately after the American Civil War. At this time, too, the Fenians were arming and drilling to attack Canada. Many people in the colonies realized that they should unite to be ready to meet the foe.

THE POLITICAL DEADLOCK

The need to work together to build railways, the desire to increase trade between the Maritime Provinces and Canada, the need to take steps to see that the West was not lost to Canada and Great Britain, the need to be united in case of war with the United States — all these were important arguments in favour of forming a confederation. But the factor that made the leaders of Upper and Lower Canada see that they must have confederation NOW, was the political situation in Canada.

The union of Upper and Lower Canada had not worked out as Lord Durham had hoped it would. The people of Lower Canada were afraid that the people of Upper Canada would try to force them to give up the French language and the Roman Catholic religion. They had some grounds for this fear because, as we have seen, Lord Durham would have pressed them to adopt the language and the customs of the English. Moreover, there can be no doubt that there were many people in Upper Canada who would have favoured making the French accept the English language and the Protestant religion.

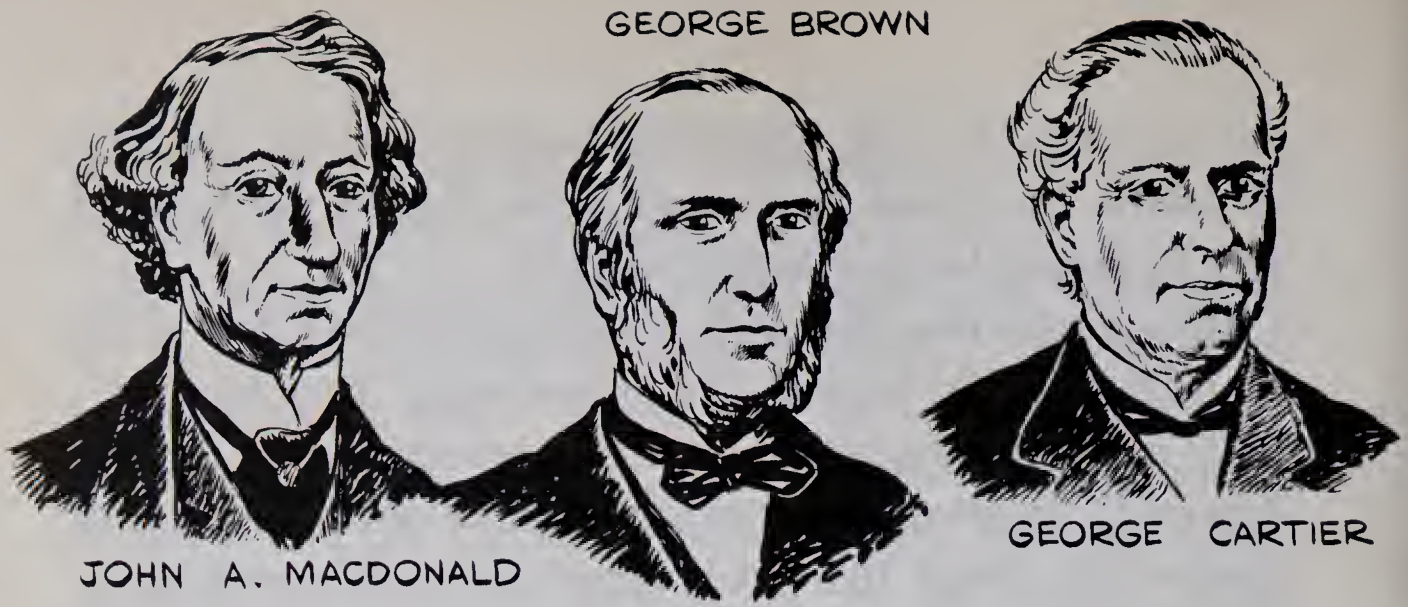
There were several political parties, each with its own policies which it wished to see made the policy of the colony. The remnants of the old Family Compact party of Upper Canada upheld the special privileges of the Church of England and favoured keeping as much power as possible in the hands of the Governor and the Executive Council. The moderate Tories of Upper Canada, led by John A. Macdonald, formed an alliance with the moderate Reformers of Lower Canada, led by George E. Cartier, and called themselves the Liberal Conservative party. It was the forerunner of the present Conservative party, still often called the Tory party. There were moderate Reformers in Upper Canada who sometimes voted with the Liberal Conservative party and sometimes against it. Then there were the "Clear Grits", the more extreme Reformers, led by George Brown. In Lower Canada, in addition to Cartier's moderate Reformers, there were two groups, the English-speaking group led by Alexander T. Galt, and the "Parti Rouge" which opposed the influence of the priests in politics. Since there were so many parties, no one of them could keep a majority in the Legislative Assembly long enough to look after the business of the country. Elections were held again and again but no party could stay in power for any length of time.

How could this deadlock be broken? The Clear Grits thought it should be ended by introducing "Rep. by Pop.", that is, by giving each province *representation* in the Assembly in proportion to its *population*. The Act of Union had stated that each province should send forty-two members to the Assembly. When the Act was passed Lower Canada had the larger population, but it had not been allowed to send more members to the Assembly. Now Upper Canada had about 300,000 more people than Lower Canada had. This way of breaking the deadlock might have pleased Upper Canada but of course Lower Canada would never agree to it. "Rep. by Pop." was not the answer. Perhaps confederation might be!

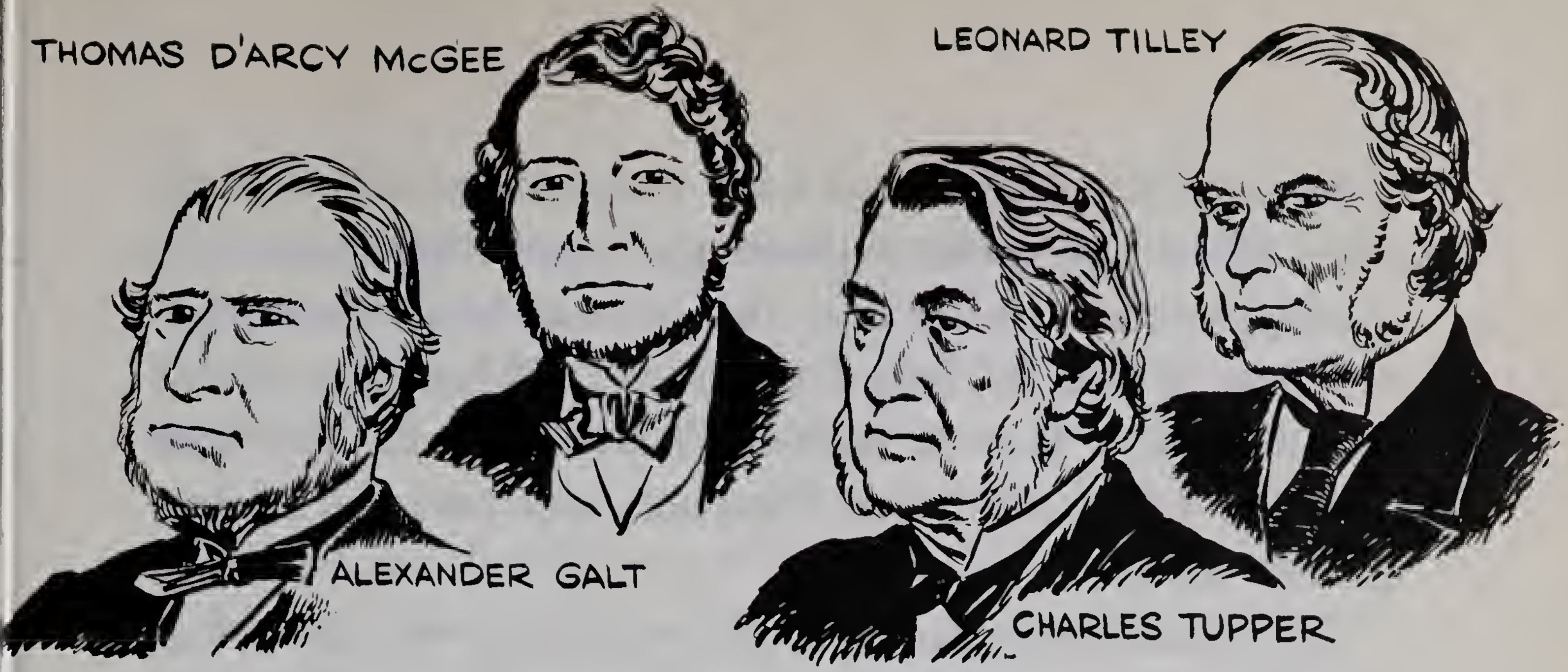
26. The Fathers of Confederation

"Let us now praise famous men
And our fathers who begat us."
Ecclesiasticus xliv. 1

Confederation could never have been achieved without the courage and leadership of a small number of able statesmen who, fortunately for Canada, were in office at the right time. They had to set aside their party differences. Reformers worked with Tories. Men who had argued against each other on political platforms and in the Legislature, men who had been bitter opponents, had to forget their differences and work together for a common cause.



The name Fathers of Confederation has been given to the delegates who attended the Quebec Conference. There were twelve from Upper and Lower Canada, five from Nova Scotia, seven from New Brunswick, seven from Prince Edward Island, and two from Newfoundland. They all took an active part in the discussions but very soon it was realized that there were seven who were leaders. They were John A. Macdonald, George Brown, George Etienne Cartier, Alexander Galt, Thomas D'Arcy McGee, Charles Tupper, and Leonard Tilley. Each made a notable contribution. Macdonald was the diplomat, the man who by his charm and tact could persuade people to work together, and the leader who, once the plan was adopted, would not give up until success was achieved. Brown sacrificed his own political career to work with Macdonald whom he disliked. Cartier brought in Lower Canada. Galt was the first to present a plan for a larger union in the Assembly of Canada and the man who worked out the financial arrangements for confederation. McGee, possibly the greatest orator Canada has ever known, made the people thrill to the possibilities of the future of a united Canada. Tilley brought in New Brunswick, and Tupper, a powerful fighter, brought Nova Scotia into confederation against the will of most of the people and kept it in the Dominion in spite of powerful opposition.



We honour these men for the wisdom, the faith, and the determination which created the Dominion of Canada.

JOHN A. MACDONALD

In the early summer of the year 1820 the good ship the *Earl of Buckinghamshire* sailed into the Gulf of the St. Lawrence carrying immigrants to Canada. Among the passengers crowding the decks was a small bright-eyed, curly-headed boy of five, whose name was John Alexander Macdonald. No one on board could have guessed that this little lad was destined to be Prime Minister of Canada and one of our country's greatest men.

John A. Macdonald was born in Glasgow, the son of Hugh Macdonald, a manufacturer of bandanna handkerchiefs. When Hugh Macdonald failed in business in Scotland, he brought his family to Canada to make a fresh start, choosing to come to Kingston because some of Mrs. Macdonald's relatives lived there. He opened a shop but unfortunately he was no more successful in Kingston than he had been in Scotland. He moved to Hay Bay, in the township of Adolphustown, and later to Stone Mills, now called Glenora, near Picton. There he built a grist-mill and undertook to weave cloth for any of the settlers who could afford to pay.

John A. Macdonald had such pleasant memories of all these places and spoke so glowingly about them, especially during election campaigns, that it was hard for people to know where he had come from. When one of his friends said so, John A. replied, "That's just what the Grits say. The *Globe* has it that I am born in a new place every general election."

The Macdonalds knew what it was to be very poor, but they were determined to give their son a good education. In those days parents had to pay fees to send their children to school and to send young John to Kingston to a good school they would have to pay for board and lodging, too. When he was ten years old they scrimped and saved enough to send him to Kingston where he attended school for five years.

When he was only fifteen John A. Macdonald had to start to earn his living. "I had no boyhood," he often said in later days. He decided to enter the legal profession and the first step was to find a lawyer who would take him into his office. There was no law school in those days. George Mackenzie agreed to take him and young John set out for Toronto to write an examination to prove that he knew enough and was clever enough to study law. He passed the examination and returned to Kingston to enter George Mackenzie's office. He must have been a good student because when he was only seventeen Mackenzie sent him to Napanee to open a branch office there. The next year a cousin who had a law office in Picton was ill and asked John to look after his practice.

In his first case in Picton, Macdonald and the lawyer for the other side argued so fiercely that they came to blows. The judge was shocked at such improper behaviour and told the crier to make the lawyers stop fighting. The crier, who was an old friend of John A. Macdonald's, shouted "Order! Order in the Court! Order in the Court!" but in a lower tone, when he came near Macdonald, said, "Hit him, John, hit him!"

Canadians took a very lively interest in politics in those days and young John A. Macdonald was no exception. He and his friends spent many hours discussing the government and the shocking ideas of the Reformers who wanted to change the system of government. Some of the Reformers even thought Canada should have a republican form of government like the United States! John and his friends were Tories, not extreme Tories like many of the people of Toronto, but Moderate Tories, who believed that no great changes were needed, but who did not approve of special privileges for the Church of England.

In 1836, when he was only twenty-one, Macdonald passed his final law examination and opened up his own office in Kingston. Next year came news of the rebellion in Upper Canada. All the loyal men of Kingston were called out to defend the government and of course Macdonald was with them. "I carried my musket in 1837," he often declared in his election speeches later. The Kingston men did not take part in any actual fighting but they marched and drilled and were ready for action. Many years later Macdonald remembered those days and said, "The day was hot, my feet were blistered — I was but a weary boy — and I thought I should have dropped under the weight of the flint musket which galled my shoulder." But Macdonald did not drop. His companion was a grim old soldier who showed no signs of weariness and Macdonald would not give in while the old soldier could march forward.

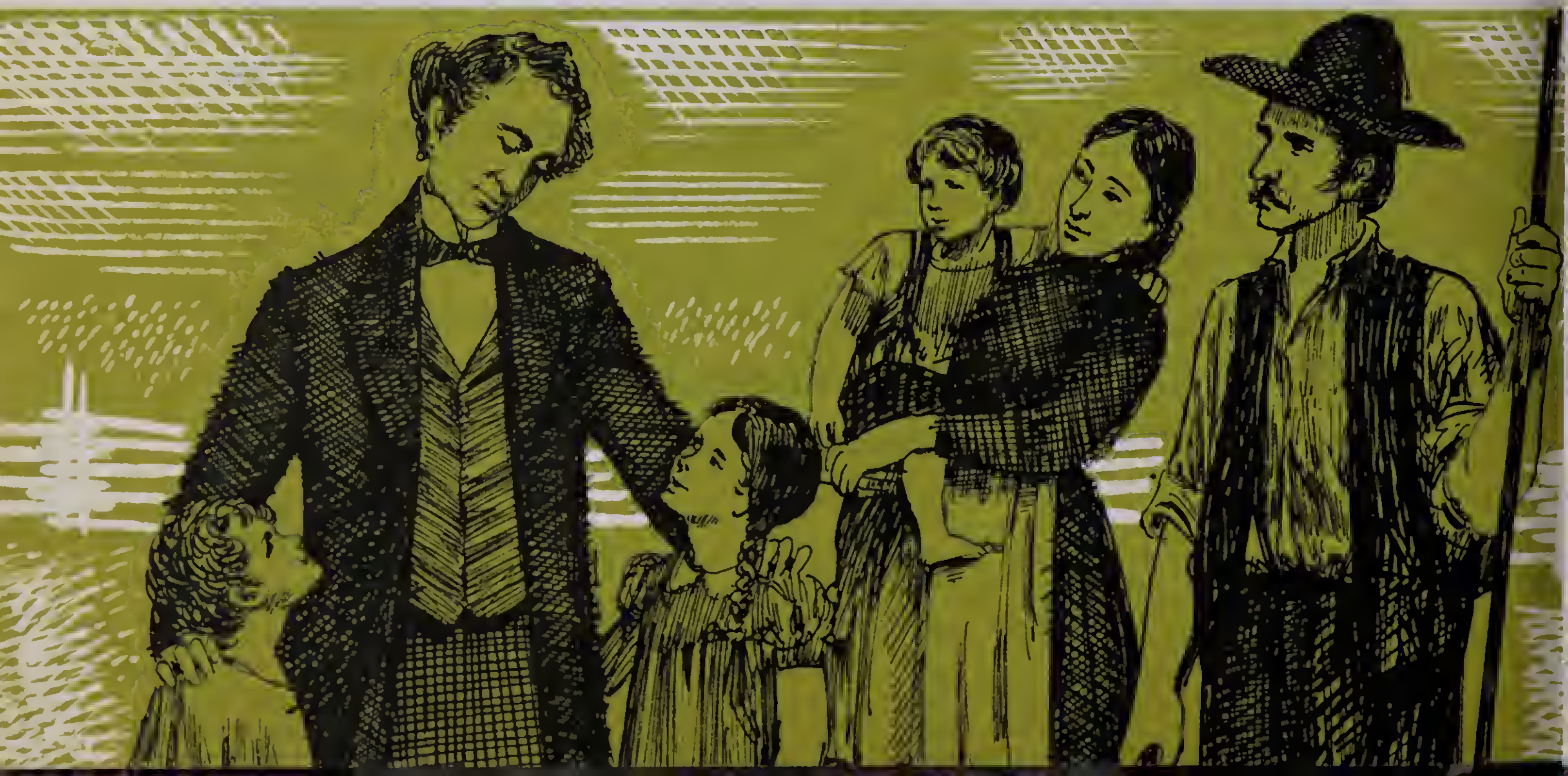
In 1843 his friends persuaded him to run for election to the town council and he was successful. The next year he was elected to represent the Tories of Kingston in the

Legislative Assembly, and three years later, in 1847, he became a member of the Cabinet. Sir Allan MacNab had the title of leader of the Tories but before long everyone realized that John A. Macdonald was the strong man of the party. He held different offices — Receiver-General, Attorney-General, Minister of Militia — in Tory governments until in 1856 he became Prime Minister.

Macdonald, like Abraham Lincoln, had an almost inexhaustible supply of jokes and stories which he delighted to share with anyone who would listen. He loved even to joke at his own expense. He had a very large nose, and whenever a cartoon of him appeared in any of the newspapers the artist had exaggerated the size of his nose. One day the barber who was shaving him took hold of his nose and said it was not every man who could take the Prime Minister by the nose. "No," replied Macdonald, quick as a flash, "and *you* have your hands full."

John A., as he was always called, had a great gift for making friends. When he was visiting one farm on his election campaign he would talk about the neighbours on the next farm until he found out the names of the children and learned about any births or deaths since he had last visited that part of the country. Then when he came to the next farm, he could call the children by name

Macdonald believed that a politician should keep in touch with the voters. He won many votes by visiting the farmers and convincing them that he was interested in their affairs.



and be ready to congratulate the family on the new baby or sympathize with their sorrows. This was good politics, for the voters liked to believe that the politicians knew them and were concerned about their problems. He was a good speaker, always able to interest and amuse an audience, and few people ever got the better of him in an argument.

GEORGE BROWN

In 1843 another young Scotsman named George Brown came to Canada. He settled in Toronto, and with his father started a newspaper, the *Globe,* still published under the name of *The Globe and Mail.* George Brown was a skilful journalist and the *Globe* was a great success, especially among the settlers of Scottish descent. In fact, it came to be known jestingly as "The Scotchman's Bible".

In his editorials Brown urged Canada to look to the West, declaring over and over again, "Canada's western boundary should be the Pacific Ocean." He criticized the policies of John A. Macdonald's party and supported those of the Reformers.

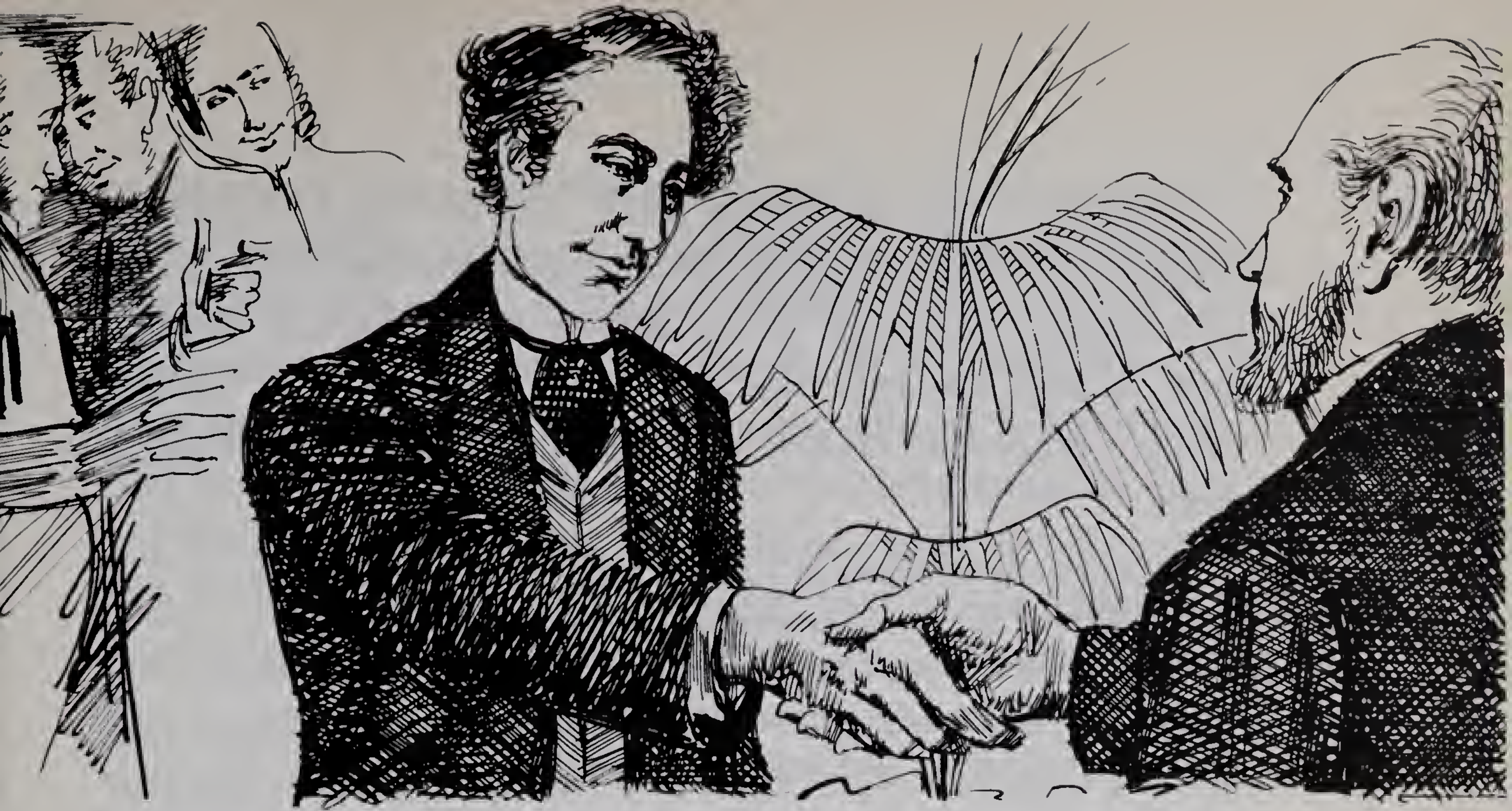
By 1851 he had gained such a following that he was elected to the Legislative Assembly where he soon became the leader of the group of Reformers who were nicknamed "Clear Grits". They got this name because they said they were "all sand and no dirt, clear grit all the way through". However, no political party of that time could claim it had "no dirt", for all politicians made very bitter attacks against their opponents.

George Brown was a powerful speaker and could hold the attention of his audience as he hammered away, without jokes or flattery, to argue that reforms were needed. He was a sober, earnest man, who disapproved strongly of Macdonald's joking attitude towards life. Macdonald said that Brown was "a pompous fraud" who took himself and everything else too seriously. They said very harsh and bitter things about each other. For a long time they would not speak to each other when they met on the street.

When political deadlock developed, when neither party had a large enough majority to complete the business of the Assembly, George Brown began to argue in his newspaper and in speeches for "Rep. by Pop.". Unfortunately everyone knew he was unfriendly to Roman Catholics. Because he was the leader of this campaign, the people of Lower Canada became more suspicious than ever of any suggestion which came from Upper Canada. As a result it became even more difficult to solve the deadlock and even more important to do something about it and to do it at once.

Lord Monck, the Governor-General of Canada, undertook to try to break the deadlock. He realized that all parties would have to work together to solve their problems. The difficulty was that Macdonald and Brown were so violently opposed to each other that it seemed hopeless to expect them to work together for anything. But Lord Monck did not despair, and at last, through his influence, the two leaders were persuaded to forget their antagonism for the sake of their country.

Brown made the first move. For some time he had been advocating in the *Globe* that Upper and Lower Canada should form a federation instead of being united as they were. Each province then would have a legislature to handle its own affairs and there would be a parliament with representatives from both provinces to handle matters which concerned both of them. One day he told two Tory members that he would be willing to join a union government if it was pledged to bring about a federation of the



The most famous handshake in Canadian history took place when Brown and Macdonald agreed to set their differences aside and work together to end the deadlock and to bring about Confederation.

two provinces. He was risking his political future for he knew that many of the Reformers would not agree with him.

Macdonald at once agreed to accept Brown's offer. One morning the members of the Legislature were astonished to see these two men shaking hands and chatting together in a friendly way. After "the most famous handshake in Canadian history", a union or coalition government was formed to break the deadlock.

Many years later, Macdonald, writing about the events of that time, stated, "We acted together, dined at public places together, played euchre in crossing the Atlantic, and went into society in England together. And yet on the day he resigned, we resumed our positions and ceased to speak."

GEORGE ETIENNE CARTIER

Another important figure in bringing about confederation was George Etienne Cartier of Montreal. Without his leadership the people of Lower Canada could not have been persuaded to accept confederation.

When he was a young man, Cartier had supported Papineau in his attempts to bring about reforms in the government. Though not a gifted poet, Cartier wrote a song which became the marching song of the French rebels. The last stanza may be translated into English thus:

> "Originally subjects of France, now subjects of Britain . . .
> Which of the two countries do we prefer?
> But have we not, I ask you, still more powerful bonds?
> Before all let us prefer our own country!
> Before all let us be Canadians!"

When the rebellion broke out in 1837 Cartier shouldered his musket and fought beside his fellow-citizens. When the rebels were defeated he fled to Vermont, where he had the unusual experience of reading in a Quebec paper an account of his own death: As soon as the men who had taken part in the rebellion were allowed to return to Canada, he came back to his law office in Montreal. He always maintained that he had been fighting, not against the British Government, but against the Château Clique.

In 1849 he was elected to the Legislative Assembly by the citizens of Montreal. He later became the leader of the Tory party for Lower Canada and shared with John A. Macdonald the responsibility of heading the Cabinet. To-day there is one head of the Cabinet, known as the Prime Minister. In those days, though one was called the Prime Minister, there had to be two who shared the responsibility, one from Upper Canada and one from Lower Canada.

When talk about confederation began, many of the people of Lower Canada were afraid that the French-speaking people of their province might be treated unfairly, since the majority of the citizens of the other provinces were English-speaking. Cartier would not agree to "Rep. by Pop." as long as there were only the two provinces of Upper and Lower Canada in the Union. But he was ready to work for a larger plan of a confederation of the two Canadas with the Maritime Provinces. In a confederation each province would have a legislature of its own to make laws about its own affairs, therefore the people of Lower Canada need fear nothing from the plan.

Cartier realized that something had to be done about the deadlock. He thought that confederation of the Canadas and the Maritime Provinces would be the best possible solution. He saw, too, that the provinces working together would be better able to defend themselves in case of war, and better able to undertake such large enterprises as the building of railways.

Cartier knew that many of the leaders in Lower Canada were violently opposed to joining with the other provinces, and that most of the people were afraid of any change. With great courage he risked his political career for the cause. Tirelessly he travelled up and down the country to persuade the French Canadians that confederation would not threaten their right to use their own language, to control their own schools, or to worship in Roman Catholic churches. He warned them that if the provinces did not unite they might be swallowed up by the United States. Finally he convinced them that they had more to gain from confederation than they could possibly lose.

Years later Macdonald said, "Cartier was bold as a lion. He was just the man I wanted. But for him Confederation could not have carried."

ALEXANDER TILLOCH GALT

Alexander Galt was the business man of Confederation. He was the son of John Galt, the Scottish novelist, who founded Guelph and after whom the city of Galt is named. Galt, realizing that the country needed railways if it was to develop, took an active part in campaigns to promote the buildings of railways. He was one of the first members to speak in the Assembly in favour of confederation. Throughout the conferences that brought Confederation about, Galt's knowledge of the country and his understanding of finance was of great value. He became Finance Minister in the first Dominion Cabinet.

THOMAS D'ARCY MCGEE

In the year 1857 a young Irish journalist named Thomas D'Arcy McGee came to Montreal. He had already had an exciting and adventurous career. He had taken part in a rebellion in Ireland and, when the rebellion failed, he had escaped to the United States disguised as a priest. There he earned a living as a newspaper man and took an active part in politics. However, when some Irish Canadians in Montreal asked him to come there to start an Irish-Canadian newspaper, he was glad to accept their invitation. It was not long before the people of Montreal were so favourably impressed by his editorials and his speeches that they elected him to the Assembly.

One of the difficulties in the way of bringing about a union of all the provinces was that there was no common feeling, no spirit of nationality among them. Few had grasped the vision of a Canadian nation. This vision D'Arcy McGee undertook to create. On the public platform, in the Legislative Assembly, in the editorials of his newspaper, wherever and whenever he could, he preached the gospel of the "new nationality".

"I look forward to the day," he proclaimed in the Assembly in 1860, "when we shall be known, not as Upper and Lower Canadians, Nova Scotians, or New Brunswickians, but as members of a nation designated as the Six United Provinces.

"A Canadian nationality — not French-Canadian, nor British-Canadian, nor Irish-Canadian — patriotism rejects the prefix — is, in my opinion," he declared, "what we should look forward to, that is what we ought to be prepared to defend to the death."

D'Arcy McGee was the most eloquent of the Fathers of Confederation. He had the "silver tongue" of the natural orator. He was also a poet and many of his poems published in his newspaper strove to make Canada proud of her past and of her future. His brilliant emotional speeches stirred the imagination of his audiences, and aroused in them a feeling of pride in Canada and confidence in the future of their country. He appealed especially to the younger generation. Inspired by Thomas D'Arcy McGee, there arose a party called Young Canada, whose members talked of the day when there would be, not a handful of separate provinces, but a great nation established in the northern half of the continent.

DR. CHARLES TUPPER

Charles Tupper, like George Etienne Cartier, came from a family which had been in America for over two centuries. His great-grandfather had moved from Connecticut to Nova Scotia in 1763. Charles was an ambitious lad. He taught school to earn enough money to pay his way through college. He took his degree in medicine in Edinburgh, and returned to practise in his native province.

The young doctor very soon became interested in politics. His first political success came when he ran for the Legislative Assembly against Joseph Howe and defeated him. Like Joseph Howe, Tupper was eager to provide better schools for the children of Nova Scotia. He believed that the schools should be paid for, as they are to-day, by taxes instead of by fees from the parents of the children. Tupper realized that any leader who persuaded the Assembly to pass a law making property-owners pay a tax for schools would be defeated in the next election. But he believed, too, that in time people would see that the tax for schools was the right way to provide for education. The Assembly passed the law to establish the tax, and sure enough, Tupper was defeated in the next election.

However, Dr. Tupper was not out of office long. In 1864, once more a member of the Assembly, he proposed the union of the three Maritime Provinces, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island.

SAMUEL LEONARD TILLEY

Unlike the other Fathers of Confederation, Tilley was not eager to go into politics. He was happy with the growing business of his drug store; he enjoyed his evenings at the Saint John Debating Society; and he was active in the Temperance movement, for he thought there was far too much drinking in Saint John and the surrounding country. He was not even in New Brunswick when his fellow-citizens decided that he should be nominated to represent them in the Assembly. When he came back to Saint John he found that he had been elected. Once in politics, however, he worked hard for every measure that he thought would make conditions better in his province, and in 1860 he became premier.

Both Tupper and Tilley risked their political careers by favouring confederation. The people of their provinces were not ready for it. But these two statesmen were convinced that Nova Scotia and New Brunswick should join confederation, and, in time, they convinced the people.

27. Planning Confederation

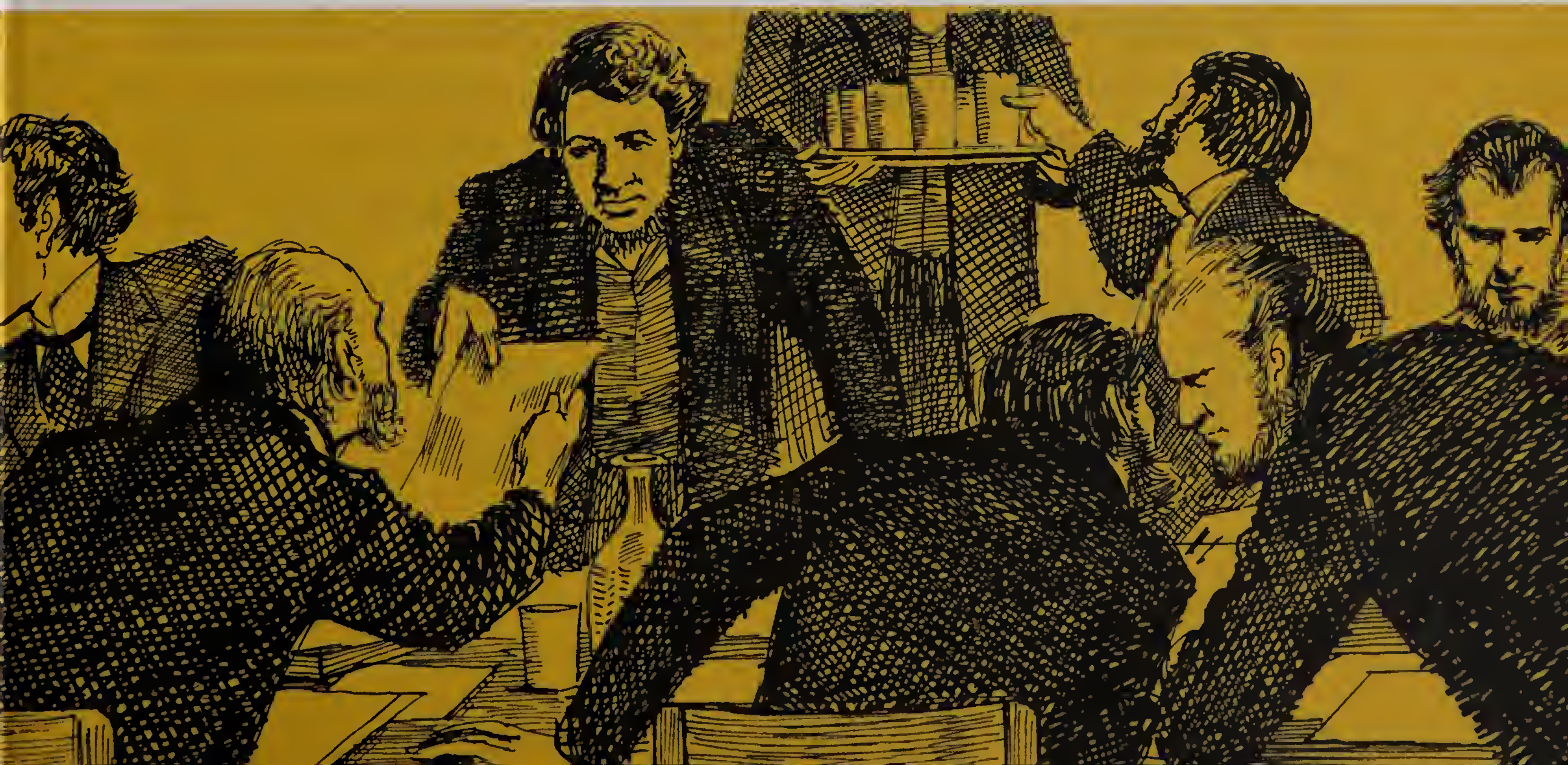
"Awake, my country, the hour of dreams is done!
Doubt not nor dread the greatness of thy fate,
Tho' faint souls fear the keen confronting sun,
And fain would bid the morn of splendours wait."

CHARLES G. D. ROBERTS: *An Ode for the Canadian Confederacy*

The leaders of the Maritime Provinces, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island, had agreed to meet to discuss a union of their provinces. They realized that together they would be better able to develop trade, organize railway building, and, if necessary, defend themselves against attack from the United States. They had not even chosen the place for their meeting when they had a request from the Canadian Government asking permission to send delegates and present a proposal. This was an opportunity the Canadians could not afford to miss. The date was set for September 1, 1864, and the place was Charlottetown, the capital of Prince Edward Island.

The Maritime delegates were already holding their first meeting when they received word that the Canadians would arrive that afternoon. They decided to listen to the Canadian proposals before discussing a union of their own provinces, and they never did get around to a full discussion of Maritime union.

At the Charlottetown Conference the delegates became acquainted with each other and with their different viewpoints. They became interested in the possibility of a confederation and a plan whereby this might be achieved.



When the government steamer *Queen Victoria* arrived, carrying Macdonald, Brown, Cartier, Galt, and McGee from Canada, a member of the Prince Edward Cabinet, W. H. Pope, rowed out to meet them "with all the dignity he could muster". He was in an awkward spot. The government of Prince Edward Island did not even approve of union of the Maritime Provinces, and here it was host to a conference to consider, not only Maritime union, but a larger scheme for a federation of all the provinces of British North America. But even more embarrassing at the moment was the fact that all the hotels in Charlottetown were jammed with people from the country around who had come to see the first circus to visit Charlottetown in many years. Until the circus left town, some of the Canadians had to live on the ship and be rowed in for the meetings.

There is no record of what was said at the conference for it was held behind closed doors. But great banquets were held in Charlottetown, in Halifax, and in Saint John, where the delegates presented their arguments.

They talked about trade, about railways, about defence, about the great North West. George Brown admitted frankly that Canada would like help to escape from the problems caused by the political deadlock. And speaker after speaker predicted a rosy future for the northern half of the continent. Edward Whelan, one of the delegates from Prince Edward Island, later collected the accounts of the speeches and published them in a book called *The Union of the British Provinces.*

WHAT DID THE FATHERS OF CONFEDERATION SAY?

John A. Macdonald

"The people of these lower provinces and of Canada have been separated too long. Our hearts are one; our loyalty and attachment to the throne of England one. I have every reason to believe that the result of the convention which has held its sittings in Charlottetown for the past week will lead to the formation and establishment of such a federation of the British North American provinces as will tend very materially to enhance their individual and collective prosperity politically, commercially, and socially."

George Brown

"Our sole object in coming here is to say to you: we are about to amend our constitutions; and before finally doing so we invite you to enter with us frankly and earnestly into the inquiry whether it would or would not be for the advantage of all the British North American colonies to be embraced under one political system. Let us look the whole question steadily in the face. If we find it advantageous, let us act upon it; but if not, let the whole thing drop."

George Etienne Cartier

"Canada of her own self, though she is a large country, with a vast and extensive interior, could not make a nation; neither could the Maritime Provinces of themselves become a kingdom. It is, therefore, necessary that the national fragments and resources of all the provinces should be concentrated and combined. . . . Canada has population and territory sufficient to make a great nation in the course of time. But she wants what the lower provinces possess – an outlet to the sea."

Alexander T. Galt

"Union is free trade among ourselves. . . . Give us union and the east shall have free trade with the west."

Dr. Charles Tupper

"The British North American provinces are weak and defenceless, living at the threshold, and, it might be, at the mercy of a great military nation."

THE QUEBEC CONFERENCE

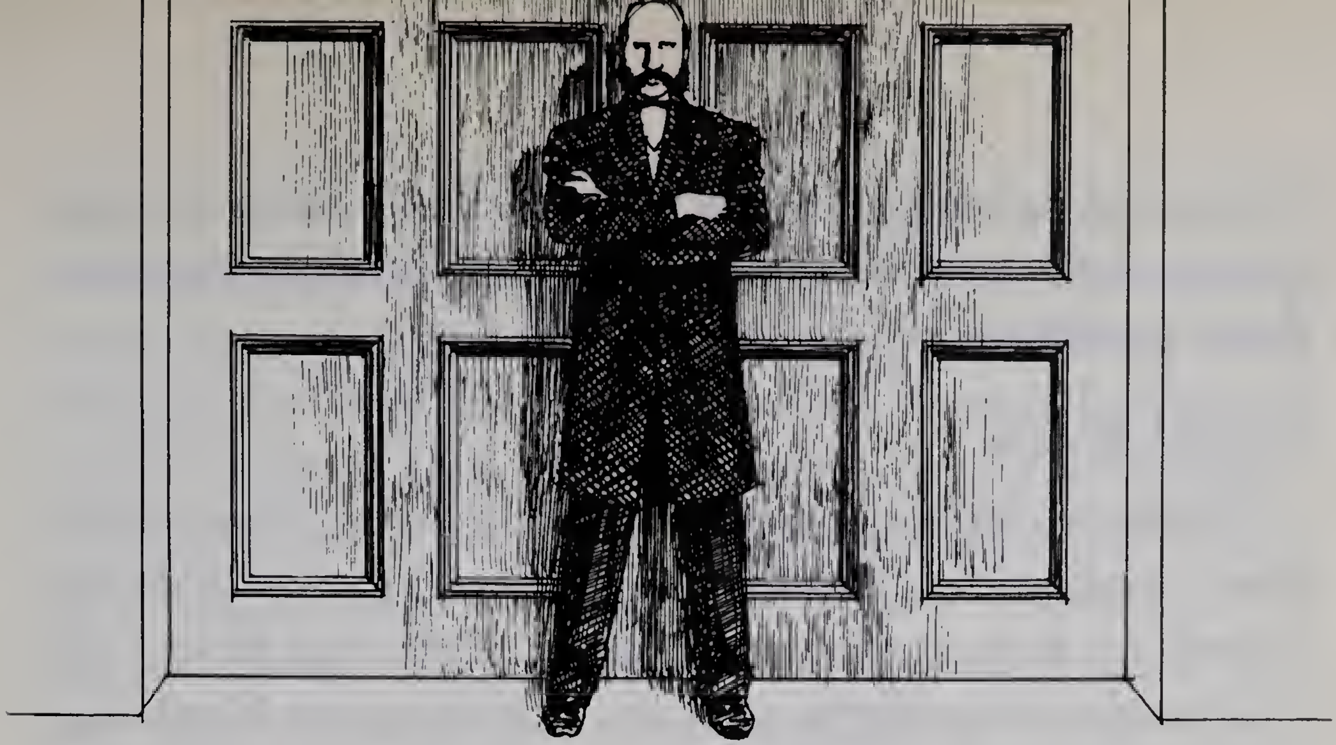
When the visitors from Upper and Lower Canada invited the delegates from the Maritimes to come to another conference in Quebec in October, the invitation was accepted. Two delegates from Newfoundland also came.

The Quebec Conference was not open to the public and no accounts of its discussions were reported in the newspapers. We know very little about the arguments that took place, very little about how the delegates were persuaded to forget their differences and to agree on the seventy-two resolutions which were drafted as a plan for confederation. We know only that after long discussion they did reach agreement.

Again there were banquets — banquets at Quebec, Montreal, Ottawa, and Toronto, and again Edward Whelan collected the speeches.

John A. Macdonald

"In the conference we have had we have been united as one man — there was no difference of feeling, no sectional prejudices or selfishness exhibited by anyone. We all approached the subject feeling its importance, feeling that in our hands were the destinies of a nation. . . . Everything, gentlemen, is to be gained by union, and everything is to be lost by disunion. Union must take place some time. I say NOW is the time."



On October 10th the delegates resumed their discussion in Quebec. There, behind closed doors, they came to an agreement for a plan for Confederation. This was contained in the Seventy-Two Resolutions which later became the basis of the British North America Act.

George Brown

"Far in advance of all other advantages will be this, that union of all the provinces will break down all trade barriers between us, and throw open at once to all a combined market of four millions of people. You in the east will send us your fish and your coals, and your West India produce, while we shall send you in return the flour and grain and meats you now buy in Boston and New York."

Alexander T. Galt

"There can be no doubt whatever that the union of these provinces will tend to promote our prosperity. It is almost a disgrace to us, if I may use that term, that under the British flag, in the dominions of our Sovereign in British North America, there should be no less than five or six tariffs and systems of taxation: and we cannot have trade between one province and another without being subjected to all the inconveniences which occur in a foreign country. . . . If we remain as we are, we are comparatively weak. Let us combine our strength . . . for national defence as well as for national improvement. . . .

We cannot fail to see that in the great West there is a vast territory which must, at some time hereafter, be united to these provinces."

George Brown

"While we have sought confederation with Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, and Prince Edward Island, we have not been neglectful of the Far West. We have made it a condition of union that the great Northwest may come into federation on equitable terms any time it pleases, and that British Columbia and Vancouver Island may likewise be incorporated with us. We have likewise made it a condition that as soon as the state of finance will permit, communication is to be opened up from Western Canada to the North West Territory."

George Etienne Cartier

"During six months of the year we have to knock on the door of our neighbour in order to carry on our trade. This cannot be tolerated. This confederation must be carried out."

Leonard Tilley

"There has been discussion of the intercolonial railway. Our feeling on this subject is: we won't come in without it. . . . How much more effectually could measures of self-defence be arranged if we were all united! And I don't hesitate to say that the time is not far distant when we must do more than we have done heretofore."

WHAT WAS THE PLAN?

The plan agreed upon in Quebec in 1864 became the basis for the British North America Act which established the Dominion of Canada. It proposed a central government to which each province elected representatives. The number of representatives was to be determined according to the population of the province. George Brown's long struggle for "Rep. by Pop." was won. Lower Canada no longer objected to it, because each province would have a legislature of its own in which laws would be made about local affairs such as schools and roads. The people of Lower Canada did not need to fear that they would lose the right to speak their own language or to have their own schools. The Federal or Dominion Government was to have the power to look after matters concerning all the provinces, such as money and banking, postal services, railroads which ran through more than one province, and defence.

THE LEADERS RETURN TO THEIR PROVINCES

The Fathers of Confederation had spent many long hours discussing the plan and they were convinced that it was wise. At the Montreal banquet Edward Whelan said:

> "Let no man imagine that this much desired object can be effected at Quebec or Montreal. The great work is but commenced. . . . It will be the duty of the public men in each and every province to educate the public mind to the adoption of their views. The task may be a tedious, difficult and protracted one. . . . I shall go cheerfully among my own people, and explaining it as well as I can, I shall ask them to support this measure which I believe will enhance their prosperity."

The leaders went home to obtain approval from their provinces. But the people at home had not had the same opportunities to consider the advantages that confederation would bring. Whelan was right; convincing the public was a tedious and difficult task. The only provinces which approved the proposals were Upper and Lower Canada, where the people, weary of the political deadlock, were willing to accept confederation as a way out of their difficulties. Upper Canada was, of all the provinces, the one most interested in forming a confederation which would be able to take over the West and keep it for Canada. Cartier was able to convince Lower Canada that the proposed plan would remove any threat to their language and religion.

Prince Edward Island voted against confederation. Carter and Shea, the representatives from Newfoundland, went home very enthusiastic about the plan. When an election was held in Newfoundland, the party favouring confederation won but the leaders realized that unless the other Maritime Provinces joined there would not be much point in Newfoundland's deciding to do so. The Newfoundlanders decided to wait and see what would happen.

Leonard Tilley went back to New Brunswick and called an election so that the people of the province would have an opportunity to vote for or against confederation with the other provinces. The people who opposed the plan worked very hard to defeat it. One of the difficulties was that the provinces would have to give up the right to collect customs duties, which had been a large part of their revenues. Now, the Federal Government would collect the duties and the provinces would have to find other taxes to provide for their own expenses.

The speakers against confederation frightened the people by telling them, "Every horse, every cow, every sheep you own will be taxed and even your poultry will not escape." The plan drawn up at Quebec had stated that out of the customs duties eighty cents for every inhabitant in the province would be given to the provincial government. One speaker told his listeners about a father's conversation with his son. "Father," asked the little boy, "what is my country?" "My son, you have no country," his father replied. "Mr. Tilley has sold us to the Canadians for eighty cents a head."

These tactics were successful. Perhaps Tilley and his colleagues who had been to the Quebec Conference were so thoroughly convinced that their plan was wise that they did not work hard enough to explain it to other people. The Legislative Assembly voted thirty-five to six against joining the other provinces.

Dr. Tupper saw that it would be no use even considering the question in Nova Scotia unless New Brunswick would agree to it.

WHAT MADE PEOPLE CHANGE THEIR MINDS BETWEEN 1864 AND 1867?

The attitude of the people in the Maritime Provinces was certainly very discouraging. Fortunately several things happened to make them change their minds. These were (1) action taken by the British Government; (2) the end of the free trade with the United States; (3) the threatened Fenian raids; and (4) tireless efforts by the advocates of confederation to convince the people.

George Brown went to England and gained the approval of the British Government for the proposals which had been drawn up at Quebec. Britain wanted the colonies to be in a better position to defend themselves if there should be war with the United States. The Lieutenant-Governors of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick had made it clear that they did not approve of the plan to unite the provinces, so Britain replaced the Lieutenant-Governor of Nova Scotia with a man who was ready to support the plan, and summoned the Lieutenant-Governor of New Brunswick to England and told him either to support confederation or give up his office. He decided to support it.

When the Reciprocity Treaty finally came to an end in 1866 and the provinces lost their American market, they realized that they must find new customers. They thought that free trade between the Maritime Provinces and Canada might help.

The Fenians had made no secret of their plans to invade Canada. They actually did cross the border to Upper Canada and overpowered a small Canadian force at Ridgeway. They retreated across the border when troops of volunteers approached marching to the song,

> "Tramp, tramp, tramp, the boys are marching,
> Cheer up, comrades, let them come,
> For beneath the Union Jack
> We will drive the Fenians back,
> And fight for our beloved Canadian home."

The Fenians were threatening New Brunswick, too. Volunteers assembled to defend their borders and the Fenians did not attempt to cross the line. Nevertheless, the Fenian scare convinced many people that they should support the plan to join the other provinces.

Leonard Tilley was certain that if he could talk to enough people he could persuade them to support the Quebec plan. So he travelled day after day through the province, by railway where there was one, by buggy or sleigh where there was no railway. He explained the proposals carefully and answered questions patiently. Before long he had won many people over to his way of thinking and the election of 1866 gave his party a majority. The Assembly voted thirty for and only eight against sending delegates to London to discuss confederation.

Dr. Tupper had an even more difficult time in Nova Scotia. His party had defeated Joseph Howe and the Reformers in 1864. When the Charlottetown Conference was called to discuss the union of the Maritime Provinces, Tupper invited Howe to attend but Howe said he was too busy with his work as Fisheries Commissioner. But when the Conference began to discuss the much grander scheme of confederation, Howe, who had often spoken in favour of it, could not bear to think the discussions were going on without him. He asked the Admiral of the Fleet for a ship, saying that he wanted to inspect the fisheries on the Prince Edward Island shore. It was late in the season and the Admiral would not supply a ship. Later when the Admiral realized how much trouble was caused because Howe was not at the Conference, he said, "If I had known why he really wanted that ship, he could have had my whole squadron."

Howe had spoken so often and so eloquently about the great future of the British North American Provinces that everyone expected he would be enthusiastic about the plan. In 1861 he had moved a resolution in favour of confederation in the Nova Scotia Assembly. But he opposed the Quebec plan. Few could understand why he took this stand. But the men who had worked with him knew. They knew that Howe would not approve of any plan he had not helped to make. They were not surprised to learn that he had told a friend that he would not play second fiddle to Tupper.

Wherever he had a chance, Joseph Howe spoke against confederation. He declared that his beloved Nova Scotia would be "swamped by Canadians, a poor lot of people, a little eccentric at all times, and given to rebellion". He ridiculed the eighty cents per head of the population that was to be paid to the provinces in return for the surrender of the right to collect customs duties. "We are sold for the price of a sheepskin!" he cried.

Dr. Tupper did not budge from his stand. He had a majority in the Legislative Assembly. A premier might have been expected to call an election on an issue so important as confederation and find out what the voters thought, but not Dr. Tupper! He knew he would be defeated. He was convinced that Nova Scotia should join the other provinces and he intended to take it in whether it approved or not. After a violent debate, his majority in the Legislative Assembly passed a resolution to send delegates to the London Conference "to arrange with the Imperial government a scheme of union which will effectively ensure just provisions for the rights and interests of the province".

DELEGATES PREPARE TO GO TO LONDON

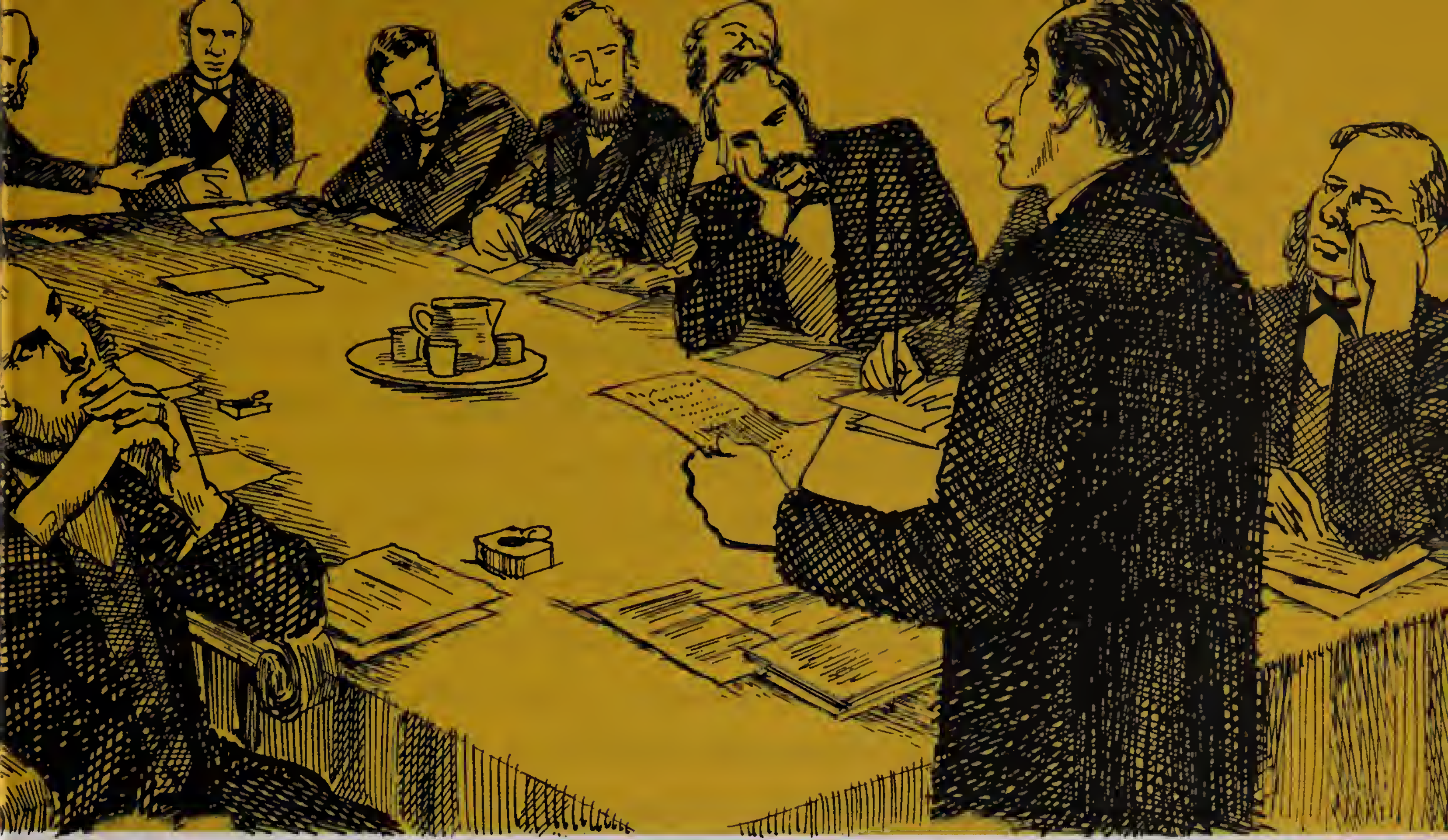
In four provinces, Upper Canada, Lower Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, the delegates packed their bags for their journey to London. Prince Edward Island was still unwilling to join. Newfoundland was waiting to see what would happen.

28. The Dominion of Canada

> "We stand
> With eyes unsealed, with wondering hearts elate,
> To view the task complete as our great Fathers planned."
>
> Charles G. D. Roberts: *These Three Score Years*

THE LONDON CONFERENCE

In December, 1866, the delegates from the four provinces met in London, England. Lord Carnarvon, the Colonial Secretary, presided at the meetings. John A. Macdonald showed so much skill in managing men that a British observer at the conference reported that he was "the ruling genius and spokesman of the group". This same observer said that the representatives of the different provinces were



Macdonald was so skilful in getting people to agree with him, so clever in managing men, that he was soon recognized as the leader of the delegates at the London Conference.

watching "as eager dogs watch a rat hole . . . a snap on one side might have provoked a snap on the other and put an end to the concord. . . . Macdonald, while he was making for a point ahead, was never for a moment unconscious of any of the rocks among which he had to steer."

Few changes were made in the draft which had been drawn up in Quebec. A division of powers between the Federal Government and the Provincial Government was agreed upon. Two provisions were particularly important. Quebec would agree only if each province was given control of education within the province, and the Maritime Provinces would agree only if there were provision for a railway to connect them with Quebec. The Act stated that the Intercolonial railway was to be built by the Federal Government. A grant of £3,000,000 was promised by the British Government to assist in building this railway.

There was a long discussion about a suitable name for the new country. Some of the suggestions were New Britain, Laurentia, Britannia, Cabotia, Columbia, Acadia. It was decided, however, that the name would be Canada, and that the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada would take the names of Ontario and Quebec. Then the question arose, "Should it be the Kingdom of Canada?" They did not like that. Then someone suggested "Dominion". There is a story, which may be true, that someone who knew the Scriptures quoted, "And his dominion shall be from sea even to sea, and from the river even to the ends of the earth." The name Dominion of Canada was chosen and on Canada's coat of arms stands the Latin inscription, "A mari usque ad mare", which means "From sea to sea". By Christmas Day the plan was ready.

The delegates had come to an agreement but they did not dare be too confident. Joseph Howe had come to London, too, carrying a petition against confederation signed by thousands of his supporters. If he could persuade enough members of the House of Commons that one of the provinces did not want to join, perhaps the bill would not be passed. He distributed a pamphlet advocating, instead of confederation, union of the colonies with Britain, with members from every colony elected to the House of Commons. Tupper was clever. He put out a pamphlet quoting Howe's earlier speeches in favour of confederation and distributed it.

On February 12, 1867, Lord Carnarvon presented to the British House of Commons the bill which was to become the British North America Act. It passed, and was signed by the Queen on March 29, to come into force July 1. It is this Act which set up the provisions for our Federal Government and our Provincial Governments, and determined which powers should belong to each, made provision for the admission of other provinces, determined that we should have elections at least once every five years, and that representation in the House of Commons should be in proportion to population.

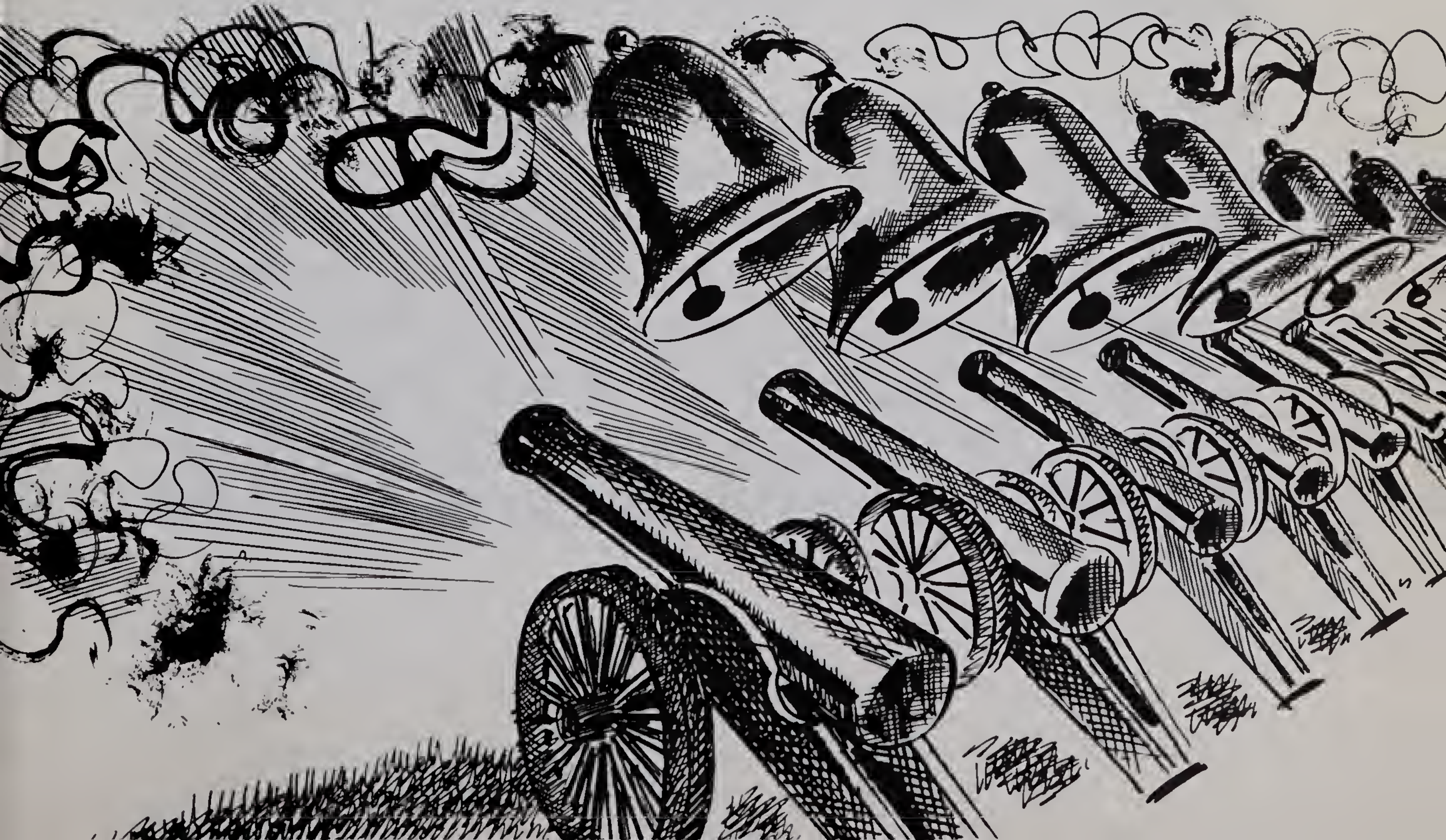
To-day Canada has complete control of her own affairs, both within Canada and with other powers, except that the terms of the British North America Act cannot be changed except by an act of the British Parliament. If an amendment is desired the House of Commons and the Senate send a joint address to the British Parliament, which then passes the necessary legislation.

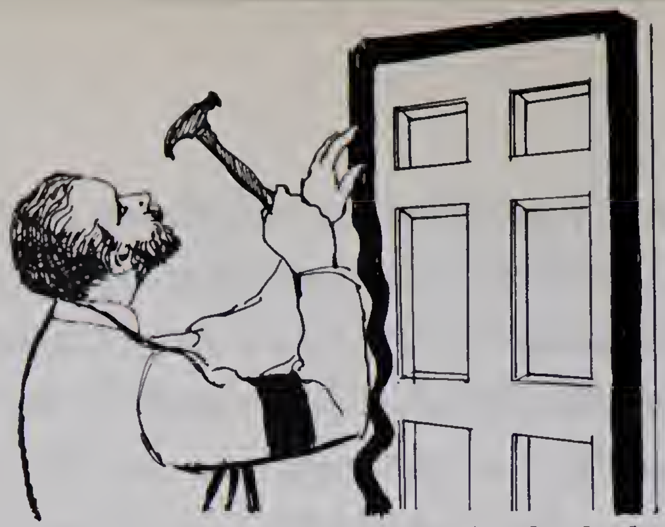
THE FIRST DOMINION DAY

All over the new Dominion of Canada there were celebrations on July 1. Twenty-one gun salutes were fired, bells were rung, services were held in churches, buildings were decked with flags and bunting, bonfires were set ablaze to mark the birth of the new nation.

People flocked into Ottawa for the historic occasion. Cheering crowds lined the streets to see the Governor-General and his escort of soldiers drive to the Parliament Buildings. But the cheers were louder still when the carriages bringing the new Prime Minister, John A. Macdonald, and his Cabinet appeared.

Bells pealed, salutes were fired, bands played, soldiers marched, mayors and members of Parliament made speeches, and crowds cheered to celebrate the birth of a new nation.





Men in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick who had opposed Confederation hung crepe on the doors and draped public buildings with black, as a sign of mourning.

There were some who did not rejoice. In parts of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, there were newspapers that came out on July 1 with wide black borders to show that they thought confederation was an occasion for mourning, not for celebration. There were people in those provinces who hung crepe on the door as they would for a death in the family.

WHAT HAPPENED TO THE LEADING FATHERS OF CONFEDERATION?

You may be interested to know what part the leaders of the Confederation movement played in the history of Canada after their great goal had been achieved. Each in his own way continued to contribute to the development of our country. Two became Prime Minister; two were murdered.

JOHN A. MACDONALD

On the first Dominion Day the Governor-General announced that the Queen was honouring John A. Macdonald by making him a Knight Commander of the Bath. Henceforth he would be Sir John. He became Prime Minister of the new Dominion, and except for the years 1873 to 1878, when the Liberal party was in power, he held that office until the day of his death in June, 1891. He guided the destinies of Canada and of the Conservative party with a sure hand, always firm in his purpose to make Canada a great nation.

We shall learn a great deal more about his career in our study of Canada.

GEORGE BROWN

George Brown was defeated in the election of 1867. Because of the great influence of his newspaper, the *Globe,* he remained a very important figure in the Liberal party. In 1873 he was appointed to the Senate, but he found it quiet there after the vigorous, even violent, debates he had been accustomed to in the Legislative Assembly. He did not attend very often.

In 1888 he died as a result of a gunshot wound. An employee whom he had dismissed from the *Globe* because of drunkenness burst into his office, pulled out his gun, and fired at the astonished editor.

GEORGE ETIENNE CARTIER

Cartier was elected to the House of Commons in 1867 and became a member of the Cabinet as Minister of Militia and Defence.

When Lord Monck announced that the Queen was honouring Macdonald by making him a Knight Commander of the Order of the Bath, and six other leaders by making them Companions of the same order, there was resentment. True, Macdonald had presided at the meetings in London and he was the first Prime Minister of the new Dominion, but many people thought that he had done no more to establish Confederation than some of the others.

Cartier and Galt declined the honour. Cartier thought that when he was given less recognition than Macdonald the French Canadians were being slighted. "Personally I care nothing for honours," he said, "but as a representative of one of the two great provinces in Confederation I have a position to maintain, and I shall not accept the honour."

Sir Charles Tupper wrote to the Secretary of State, "I rejoice that it was the Royal pleasure to confer deservedly a distinction so high upon Mr. Macdonald, but I regard it as a great misfortune that a million of Catholic Frenchmen, than whom her Majesty has no subjects more loyally devoted . . . should feel that one of their race and religion, whose standing was equally high in Canada, . . . should not have been deemed worthy of the same gracious consideration. . . . Mr. Cartier's acceptance of an inferior distinction would undoubtedly have destroyed the great influence which he wields amongst his countrymen."

The Queen could not make Cartier a Knight Commander of the Order of the Bath because there were no vacancies in the order at that time, but, on Tupper's suggestion, she made Cartier a baronet, an even higher honour. A baronet's son inherits the title, but unfortunately Cartier had no sons and the title died when he died.

Elections were often very rowdy affairs in those days. Meetings might be broken up by crowds armed with stones, ripe tomatoes, or rotten eggs. After a very strenuous campaign in 1872, Cartier was defeated in Montreal East. He was naturally disappointed, but he had been in politics too long not to realize that the public can be very ungrateful. He had no intention of withdrawing from politics. Several members offered to give up their seats to him and he accepted a constituency in Manitoba, where both Louis Riel and his opponent withdrew so that Cartier could be elected by acclamation.

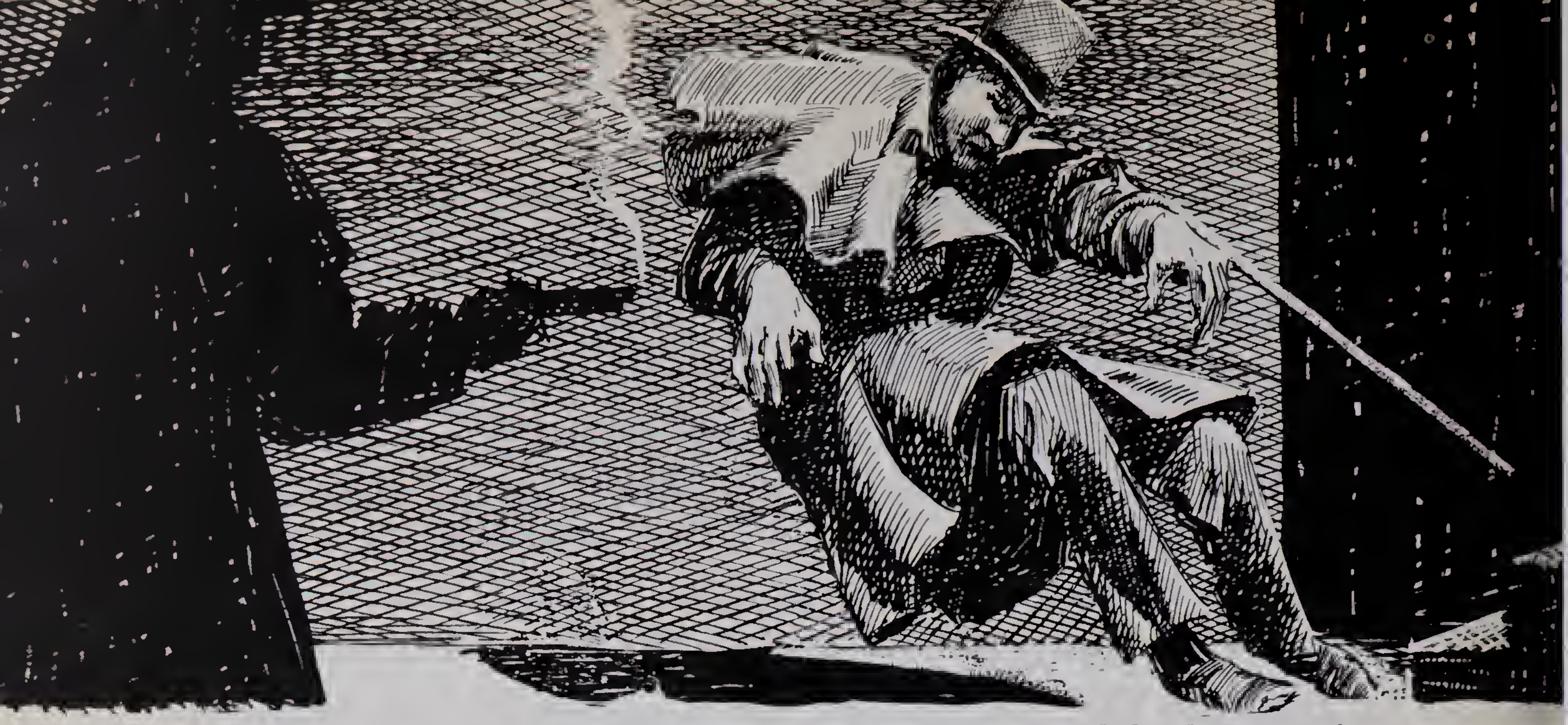
But Cartier never returned to the House of Commons. He was ill and in the autumn he went with his family to England to consult the best specialists available. In 1873 he died. In 1914, on the hundredth anniversary of his birth, a great memorial was erected on the slopes of Mount Royal to honour the great French-Canadian statesman.

THOMAS D'ARCY MCGEE

Everyone expected that McGee would be given a place in Macdonald's first Cabinet. But Macdonald was having difficulties. Quebec was to have four members in the Cabinet; Cartier insisted that three of them must be French Canadians; the Protestant English-speaking financial and commercial group would not be satisfied unless it had one. McGee was a Roman Catholic. There were many Irish Roman Catholics in the province and they, too, wanted a representative in the Cabinet. What was to be done? McGee wanted to be in the Cabinet, but he gave way, telling Macdonald that he was willing for the good of the country to be left out.

McGee was elected to the House of Commons to represent one of the Montreal constituencies. On the night of April 6th, he made an eloquent speech urging generous treatment for the province of Nova Scotia. It was after one o'clock when Parliament adjourned for the members stayed late to complete the nation's business before the Easter recess. McGee planned to go home to Montreal and expected to celebrate his forty-third birthday on Easter Monday. There was to be a party and some of his friends were to present him with a portrait.

As McGee bent over to put his key in the lock of Mrs. Trotter's boarding-house, a shot rang out and he fell on the steps. There he was found by young Will Trotter, a



The assassin waited in the dark until D'Arcy McGee reached the doorstep of his boarding-house, then shot him from very close range. Will Trotter found him and ran for help to a nearby newspaper office, but it was too late.

page-boy of the House of Commons. The murderer, Patrick Whelan, was a Fenian who thought McGee was a traitor to Ireland because he disapproved of the Fenians' activities.

The whole country mourned the death of the Irish orator who had done so much to make the people aware of the great possibilities of their land. Memorial services were held, even in small places, and Montreal gave him a most impressive funeral, with the city police and fire brigades leading the procession and members of the municipal, provincial and Dominion governments following. There was one service in English at St. Patrick's Irish Roman Catholic Church, followed by another in French in the Church of Notre Dame.

ALEXANDER GALT

Like Cartier, Galt refused the honour of becoming a Companion of the Order of the Bath, but later he became Sir Alexander. He was Minister of Finance in the first Cabinet. As the outstanding representative of the Protestant English-speaking group in the province of Quebec, and as a member of the powerful financial and commercial group in Montreal, he was the natural choice for the one English-speaking member Quebec was to have in the Cabinet.

When Macdonald was having trouble choosing Cabinet members from Quebec, Galt would have gladly withdrawn, for he was a business man with little patience for politics, but that would not have solved the problem. McGee could not have been appointed in his place for the Protestants would not have been satisfied.

Galt resigned from the Cabinet after a few months because he did not agree with the other members, and he retired from politics in 1872. He became a member of the Halifax Fisheries Commission and from 1880 to 1883 he was the first High Commissioner for Canada in London, responsible for representing Canada's interest in Britain.

He believed that Canada would some day become completely independent of Britain but he said he hoped this would not happen for a long time.

DR. CHARLES TUPPER

When Lord Monck announced the names of those whom the Queen honoured for their part in bringing Confederation about, Dr. Charles Tupper's name was on the list as a Companion of the Order of the Bath. In 1888, in recognition of his many services to Canada, he was made a baronet.

In the election of 1867 Sir Charles was the only Conservative elected in Nova Scotia. Macdonald planned to include him in his Cabinet but Tupper suggested that he and McGee should both withdraw and that Macdonald should choose an Irish Catholic from Nova Scotia since he would not choose one from Quebec. "The union of the provinces is going to end in a fiasco unless we give way," he wrote to McGee. "We are the only two men who can avert that calamity."

Tupper became a member of the Cabinet in 1870 and held various portfolios. He was the first Minister of Railways and Canals from 1870 to 1884. Then he followed Galt as High Commissioner in London. For a few months in 1896 he was Prime Minister, but in the election of that year the Conservatives were defeated and Tupper himself was defeated in his own constituency. He was the last surviving member of the Fathers of Confederation, living to the age of ninety-four. He died in 1915.

LEONARD TILLEY

Leonard Tilley became Sir Leonard on the first Dominion Day. He represented Saint John in the House of Commons and became Minister of Customs. In 1873 he became Lieutenant-Governor of New Brunswick but in 1878 he went back to the Cabinet. Seven years later he returned to a second term as Lieutenant-Governor of his native province.

For Further Study

1. Have the class form seven groups, each group to prepare a biographical sketch of one of the following: Macdonald, Brown, Galt, Cartier, McGee, Tupper, Tilley.
2. Dramatize a scene presenting extracts from the after-dinner speeches at one of the banquets during the Quebec Conference. The head-table guests will be the leading Fathers of Confederation. Each one should make a speech giving his reasons for favouring confederation.

3. On a map of Canada illustrate the growth of the nation from the four original provinces to the present day. Remember that Quebec and Ontario were not as large as they are to-day. Use a different colour for each province and mark the date when each entered confederation.

4. Suppose you were a supporter of the plan for confederation. What arguments might you use to try to convince a neighbour who opposed the plan? What arguments might he use against yours?

5. Draw the coat of arms of Canada and of each province. Find out what the mottoes mean.

6. Each province has a flower as an emblem. Find out what the floral emblem of each province is and make a drawing of each. You will find Irene Craig's book *Flags and Formalities* useful for this.

7. Design a book cover using the floral emblem of your province.

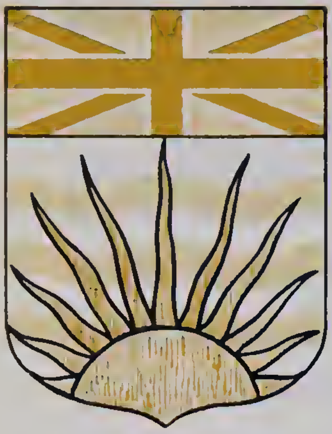
8. Could you design a border to be carved in stone on a government building in Ottawa, using the coats of arms, or the floral emblems of all the provinces?

9. Present a discussion among several citizens of New Brunswick or Nova Scotia which might have taken place on July 1, 1867.

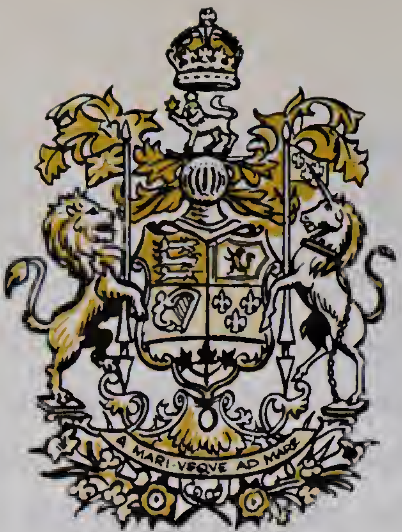
10. Some old stamps which are now quite valuable are the 1917 three-cent Fathers of Confederation, the 1926 two-cent Fathers of Confederation, the 1926 one-cent Sir John A. Macdonald, the 1926 twelve-cent Map of Canada with the four original provinces marked on it, the 1927 five-cent Thomas D'Arcy McGee stamp, and the 1935 thirteen-cent Confederation Conference at Charlottetown. There are stamps of 1926, 1935, 1947, 1948 and 1957 which carry pictures of the Parliament Buildings at Ottawa, past and present. Can you add any of these to your stamp collection?

11. Add the government steamship *Queen Victoria,* which carried the delegates from Canada to Charlottetown, to your *Book of Ships.*

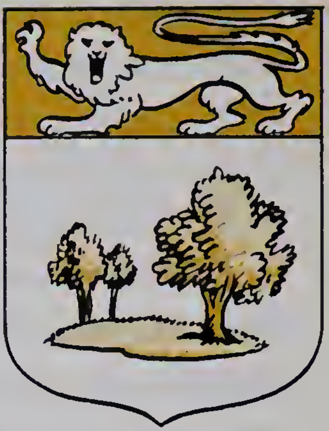
EMBLEMS
OF THE
PROVINCES
OF
CANADA



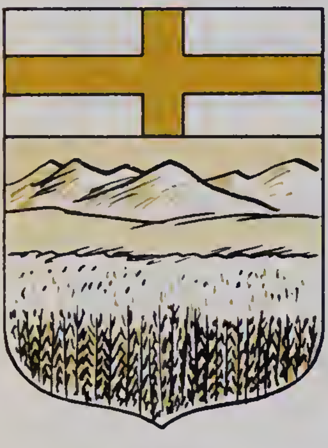
BRITISH COLUMBIA



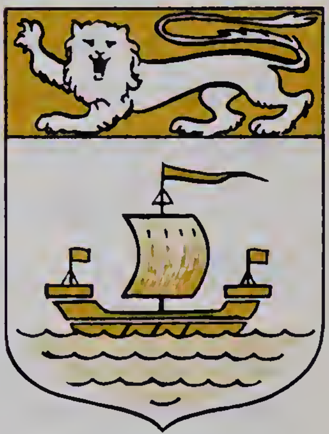
CANADA
COAT OF ARMS



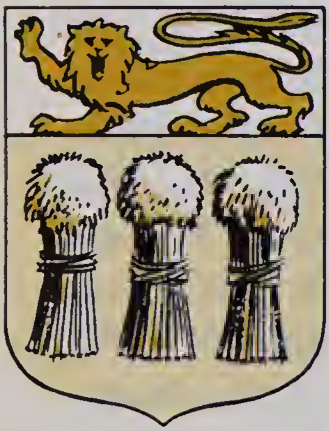
PRINCE EDWARD IS.



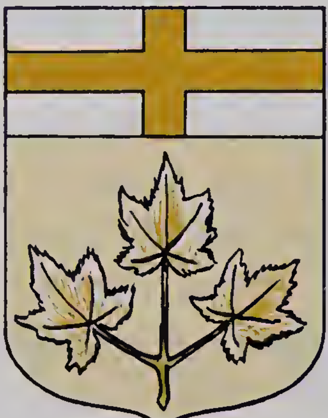
ALBERTA



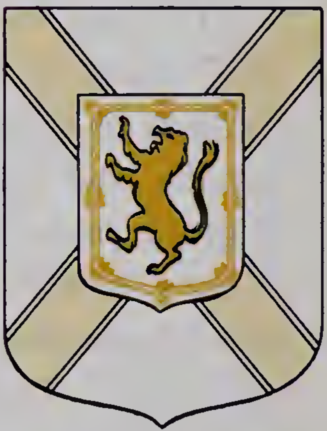
NEW BRUNSWICK



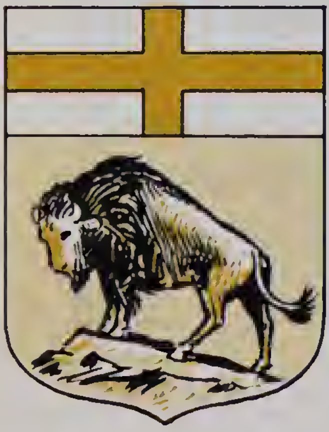
SASKATCHEWAN



ONTARIO



NOVA SCOTIA



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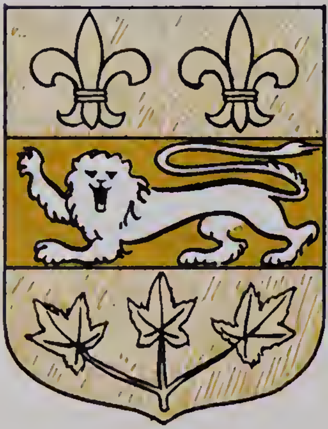

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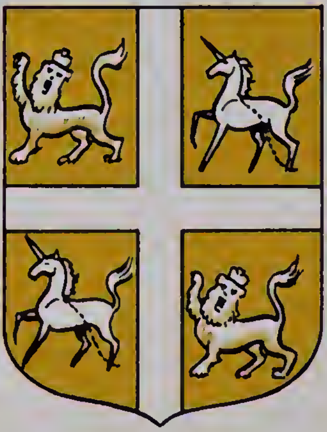


NEWFOUNDLAND

VII. *From Sea to Sea*

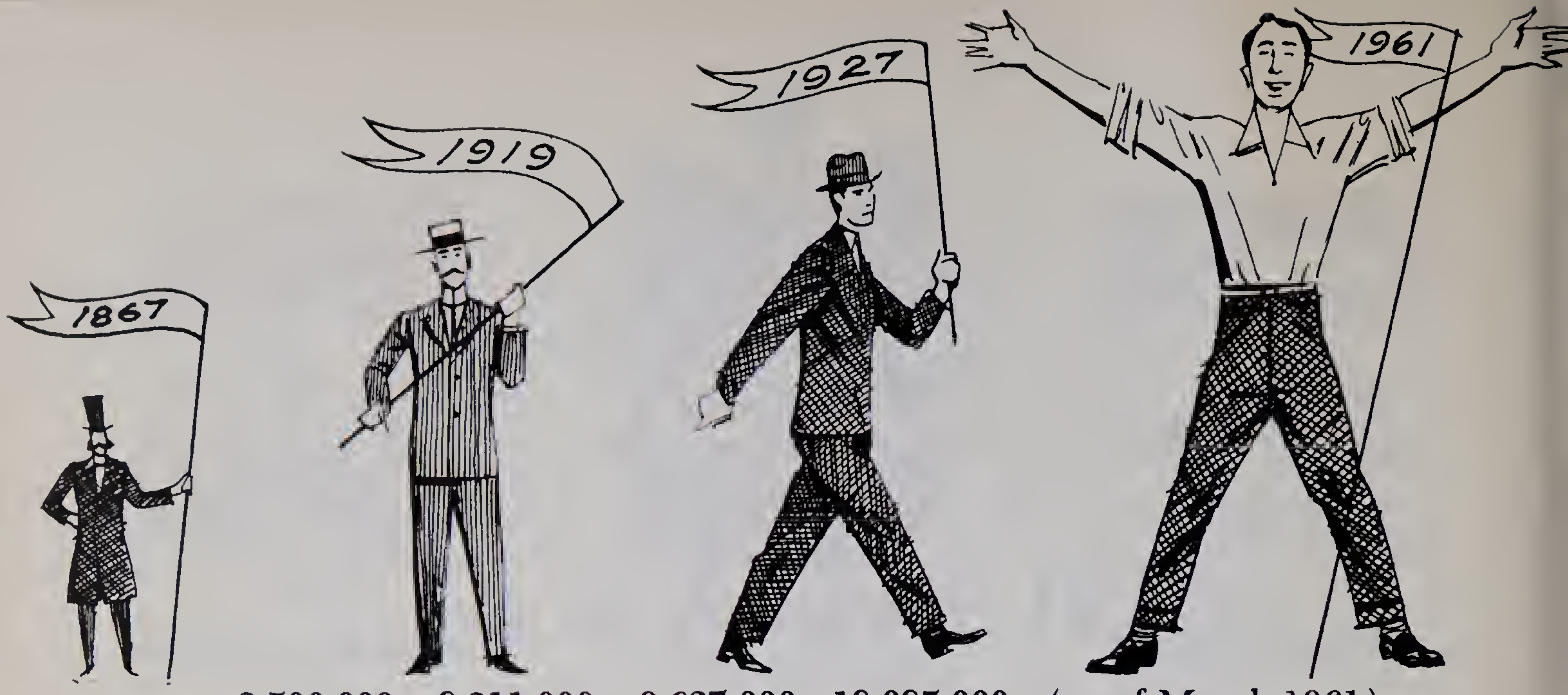
29. Launching the Young Nation

> "There is a tide in the affairs of men,
> Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune."
> William Shakespeare: *Julius Caesar*

The new Dominion of Canada was very different from the Canada we know to-day. It consisted of the four provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Quebec, and Ontario, and of these provinces, Quebec and Ontario were only about one-third of their present size. In fact, the whole Dominion was less than one-tenth of the area of our present Canada.

The Fathers of Confederation in their banquet speeches referred to the population as four million or, when they were less optimistic, as three and a half million. It was probably a little below that, since in 1871, according to the census of that year, the population of Quebec, Ontario, and all three Maritime Provinces was only 3,579,822, less than a fifth of the population of Canada in 1961.

There were no really large cities. Montreal had only about one hundred thousand inhabitants. Quebec and Toronto each had about sixty thousand. The only other places which had more than ten thousand were Saint John, Halifax, Hamilton, Ottawa, London, and Kingston. The great majority of the Canadian people lived on farms or in small



3,500,000 8,311,000 9,637,000 18,085,000 (as of March 1961)

villages. West of the Great Lakes the only centres of population were at Winnipeg on the Red River, at Victoria on Vancouver Island, and in the mining-camps of British Columbia. And these settlements were really only tiny villages in great unsettled areas. The rest of the West was inhabited by Indians and a few fur-traders.

MACDONALD, THE FIRST PRIME MINISTER

Sir John A. Macdonald was Prime Minister of Canada for the first six years after the Dominion was established. It was a difficult time, but Macdonald was equal to the task. He had tremendous problems to face. Not only were there provinces to be brought into the Dominion, but those provinces which had entered it had to be satisfied that the whole idea had not been a mistake. The Canadian Confederation, as Macdonald himself put it, was still "in the gristle" and had not yet "hardened into bone".

BETTER TERMS FOR NOVA SCOTIA

The first general election was held in the summer of 1867. In Ontario, Quebec, and New Brunswick the supporters of Macdonald's party were successful, but in Nova Scotia they met a crushing defeat. Joseph Howe, the idol of the people of that province, carried on a campaign to withdraw Nova Scotia from the Dominion. Out of nineteen members elected, only Sir Charles Tupper was a supporter of the Macdonald Government. The rest were pledged to regain Nova Scotia's independence.

If Nova Scotia withdrew, it would be a serious blow to the new Dominion. When Howe went to England to try to persuade the British Government to allow Nova Scotia to withdraw, Macdonald sent Sir Charles Tupper to present the other side of the case. Tupper succeeded in persuading Howe to give up his plan. Then, when Howe came home, Sir John A. Macdonald went to Halifax to meet him. Few politicians have ever been more clever than John A. in managing men and bringing them to accept his point of view. He promised Nova Scotia "better terms", that is, a larger share of the Dominion revenue, and he persuaded Howe to accept a place in the Dominion Cabinet. Many of Howe's followers felt that he had betrayed them, but Howe was convinced that further attempts to withdraw from the Dominion were useless.

CANADA ACQUIRES THE HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY TERRITORIES

Next, Macdonald turned his attention to completing the union of the British provinces in North America. There still remained to be brought into the fold not only Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland, but also British Columbia and the vast north-western territories controlled by the Hudson's Bay Company. The Fathers of Confederation had dreamed of a Dominion stretching from sea to sea. Macdonald set to work to make that dream come true.

His first step was to gain control of the territory controlled by the Hudson's Bay Company. For many years the people of the east had thought of the west as a land suitable only for the Indian and the fur-trader, and the fur-traders had done their best to make everyone believe that this was so. They knew that when farmers come, the fur-trader has to move out. But travellers were bringing back word about the rich soil of the prairies, and the fur-traders could not expect to control the west much longer.

Even before the movement for Confederation began, George Brown had been agitating in the editorial columns of the Toronto *Globe* that the rule of a commercial company over half a continent should be brought to an end, and that the west should be opened up for settlement. He prophesied that "fifty million people will inhabit that immense territory which the Hudson's Bay Company now claims and controls". George Brown was very optimistic; his prophecy has not yet come true but it may some day. Brown thought that the North West should be annexed to Canada, and one of his chief concerns in working for confederation was that provision should be made for admitting new provinces which would arise in the West.

In 1859, the first newspaper in the Red River settlement began publication. Its editors at once began a vigorous campaign against government by the Hudson's Bay Company and the Company's domination of trade. They declared that the Red River settlement should either become part of Canada or should be a British province with an elected legislature in which the people of the settlement would manage some of their own affairs.

Shortly after confederation, Sir John sent two of his Cabinet ministers to ask the British Government to take the control of the West away from the Hudson's Bay Company and give it to Canada. In 1869, after long negotiations, the Company surrendered its rights in the West to Canada. Canada paid the Company $1,500,000, and agreed that it could keep the land around its trading-posts and one-twentieth of the land in the fertile belt in the West.

Out of this great territory was carved the province of Manitoba in 1870. It was not as large as the Manitoba we see on our map to-day. In fact, it was only a tiny rectangle stretching from the American border to the southern tip of Lake Winnipeg, and about eighty miles west of Red River and about forty east. It was nicknamed the "postage stamp" province. The new Dominion did not acquire its first new province, as we shall see in the next chapter, without serious difficulties.

The rest of the area obtained from the Hudson's Bay Company was called the North West Territories and was under the direct control of the Federal Government. When the population increased, two more provinces, Alberta and Saskatchewan, were created in 1905.

BRITISH COLUMBIA IS PERSUADED TO JOIN

Macdonald's next step was to bring British Columbia into the Dominion. The colonies of Vancouver Island and British Columbia had been united in 1866, under the name of British Columbia. The few white settlers on the West Coast were either Hudson's Bay men and their families, settlers who had come direct from England by way of Cape Horn, or miners and merchants who had come from the United States when gold was discovered.

There were many people who thought Macdonald was foolish to try to bring territory as far distant as British Columbia into the Dominion. But Sir John had two compelling reasons for his policy. One was the dream of a nation extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific, the dream which had inspired the Fathers of Confederation. The other was the fear that if Canada did not bring British Columbia into the Dominion, the Americans might take possession of it, just as they had taken the Oregon country twenty-five years earlier.

It was not easy to persuade British Columbia. Sir James Douglas, the Governor, did not approve. John A. called upon the British Government to help him and in a short time a new governor, known to favour Confederation, was sent out. Delegates from British Columbia came to Ottawa to discuss terms. The Dominion Government promised to begin within two years a railway which would connect it with Canada, and to complete it within ten years. In 1871 the Legislative Assembly of British Columbia voted to join the Dominion.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND COMES IN

Macdonald was very eager to bring Prince Edward Island into the Dominion. In the summer of 1869, he spent a holiday in Charlottetown. Some of his Cabinet Ministers accompanied him. They called it a holiday but really Sir John was working hard to persuade the leaders of the Island that they should support a movement for Confederation with Canada. He was not successful, for the Islanders still thought they had little to gain since most of their trade was with Europe, the United States, and the West Indies. They were afraid they would be taxed for canals and railways that would be of no use to them.

Sir John was disappointed but he hoped that some day the Islanders would change their minds. It was not long before they did. They had begun to build a railway and they found it was very expensive. They wanted to buy out the proprietors who were still holding for speculation the land grants their ancestors had received in 1767, and thought that Canada might help them if they joined the

Dominion. Canada would, for there was always danger that Prince Edward Island might become a refuge for smugglers, and the possibility also that in case of war an enemy might establish a base on the island. So Canada agreed to help to pay for the railway, to provide $800,000 to buy out the proprietors, and to maintain a ferry service to the mainland. Prince Edward Island became the seventh province in 1873.

MACDONALD THE NATION BUILDER

In achieving the Confederation of four provinces, Macdonald shares the honour with Brown, Cartier, Galt, Tupper, Tilley, McGee and the others who drew up the plan. In building up the new state, in consolidating a union which extends over half a continent, his name leads all the rest. That one man, in the face of powerful opposition, could within the short space of six years mould these seven separate provinces into one great Dominion is a triumph in nation-building that ranks among the marvels of modern history.

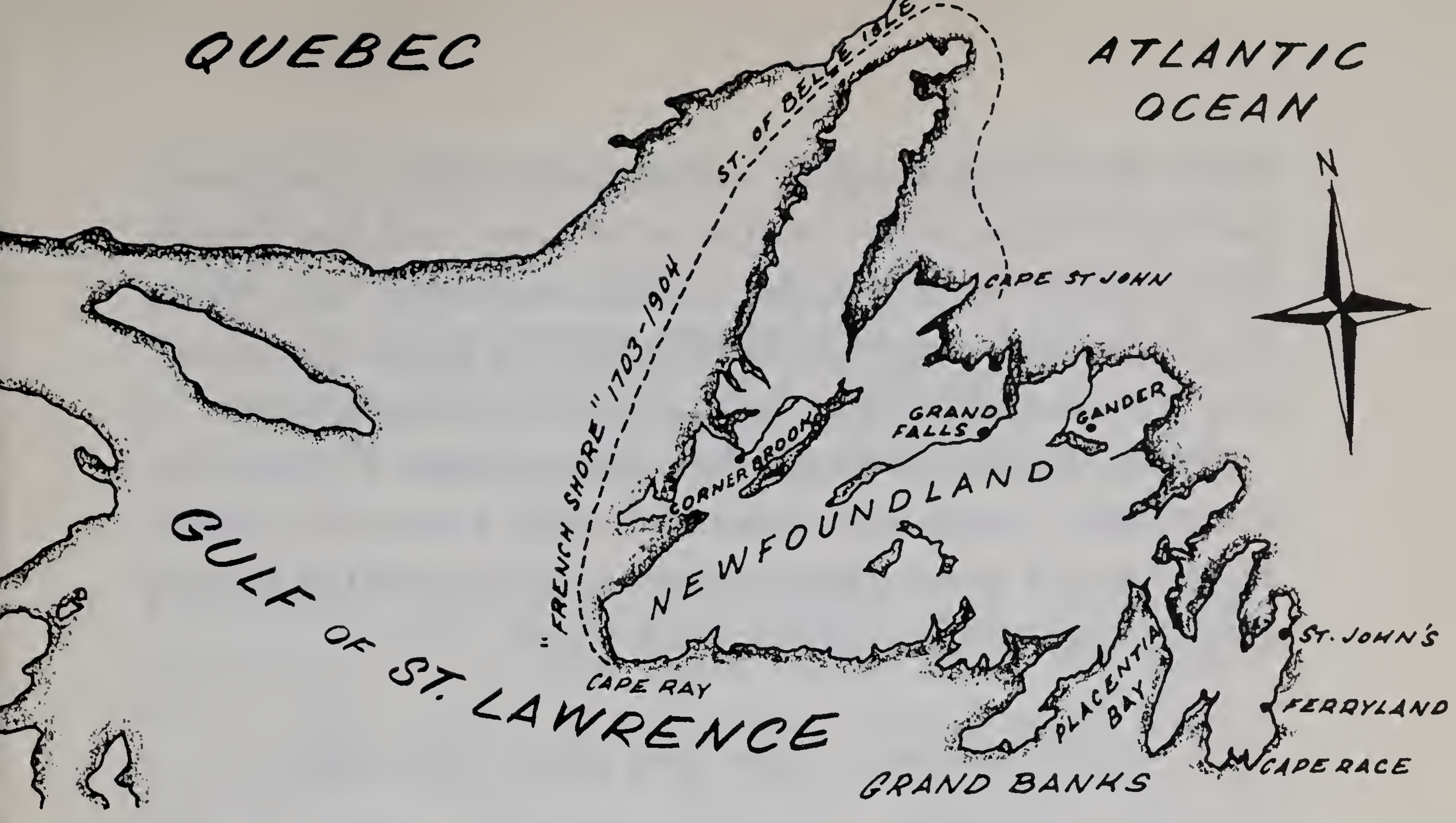
NEWFOUNDLAND THE LAST TO JOIN

Carter and Shea, who attended the Quebec Conference, were enthusiastic about Confederation, and even, as we have seen, had a majority of the Newfoundland legislature in favour of it. In the next election, however, the party opposing Confederation came into power, and, as time went on, the people of Newfoundland showed less interest in joining the other provinces. They did not like the idea of giving up their customs duties for a payment of eighty cents per person. Unlike the Canadas they had no political deadlock. The expensive railways Canada was planning would be of no use to them. Since they had no border touching the United States, they did not fear that country, and they saw in Confederation no advantage for defence. France was the country they considered a threat to their security, and, if there was trouble with France, they knew they must depend on the British navy.

WHY DID THE NEWFOUNDLANDERS FEAR THE FRENCH?

This is a difficult question and a long story, but because Newfoundland is now part of Canada, we should try to understand it. As you will remember, when the rich fisheries of the Grand Banks were discovered, ships of all nations came to Newfoundland. Later, when Britain gained possession of the island, Britain gave the French the right to land and dry fish on parts of the Newfoundland coast. These areas came to be known as the "French Shore". Before long the French claimed that they had the right to cut wood along these shores and that the Newfoundlanders had no right to fish or put up buildings there.

During the long struggle between France and Britain (which lasted with one interruption from 1793 to 1814) French fishermen did not come to Newfoundland and some Newfoundlanders moved into the French Shore. These settlers could not get titles to their land, and when Newfoundland gained responsible government in 1855, they were not allowed to elect members to the legislature. At this time France and England were allies in the Crimean War (1854-6). When the French asked that French fishermen have a monopoly of the fishing on the French Shore and Newfoundlanders should not be allowed to put buildings up there, Britain was willing to grant their request. The Newfoundlanders were furious. The British flag was


QUEBEC
ATLANTIC OCEAN
N
ST. OF BELLE ISLE
"FRENCH SHORE" 1703-1904
CAPE ST JOHN
GRAND FALLS
GANDER
CORNER BROOK
NEWFOUNDLAND
GULF OF ST. LAWRENCE
CAPE RAY
PLACENTIA BAY
ST. JOHN'S
FERRYLAND
CAPE RACE
GRAND BANKS

pulled down to half-mast. Some people even raised American flags to show that they would be willing to join the United States. For once all parties and classes on the island were united. They sent delegates to Britain to protest, and the agreement with France was cancelled. Newfoundland was assured that in the future its government would be consulted before any changes were made. This declaration is called Newfoundland's Magna Carta.

You can see why the people of Newfoundland feared the French more than they feared the Americans, and why they thought they must put their trust in the British navy.

Newfoundland's Magna Carta did not end the trouble. Prospectors were not allowed to stake claims on the French Shore. Later, when mining companies did succeed in getting grants of land, they were not allowed to put up any buildings near the coast. French warships patrolled the sea near the French Shore. It became a matter of national pride for the French to maintain their rights in Newfoundland and so the government gave the fishermen bounties to encourage them to continue to fish there. France, like England in earlier days, also considered the Atlantic fisheries a good training-ground for sailors.

When the lobster-canning industry developed, Newfoundlanders built canneries on the west coast and the French claimed they had the right to build canneries, too. When Newfoundland wanted to build a railway across the island, they were not allowed to build across the French Shore.

Finally in 1904 Edward VII, often called Edward the Peacemaker, made an agreement with France by which Britain gave France some territory in Africa and the French gave up their claim to the French Shore.

NEWFOUNDLAND DOES NOT JOIN UNTIL 1949

In 1893 Newfoundland made some advances to the Canadian Government indicating that it might be willing to join Canada, but that was shortly after Sir John A. Macdonald had died and the Conservative Government was not very energetic. Little attention was paid to the suggestion. The world was at peace; Canada did not anticipate war; and even if war had come, it would not have been a war of airplanes and submarines. The Canadians did not realize that Newfoundland is a "pistol pointed at the heart of Canada". No one dreamed that this island—which was once called "a great ship moored near the Grand Banks for the convenience of the British fishermen"—would one day become "an unsinkable aircraft carrier stationed at the entrance of the St. Lawrence" from which planes would take off to guard the sea-lanes against German U-boats and that St. John's would become a haven for ships battered and damaged by enemy submarines.

It was not until 1949, after the Second World War, that Newfoundland became the tenth province of Canada. Then the dream of the Fathers of Confederation was realized, and all the British North American provinces were at last united under one government.

30. Trouble at Red River

"Little enough was our learning,
Small was our craft and skill,
But we saw the feet of the morning
Go by – and our hearts were still."

BLISS CARMAN: *Word from the Moccasin Trail*

Few visitors and even fewer settlers came to the little settlement in the Red River Valley until the 1850's. Then a tiny stream of adventurers from eastern Canada trickled west to try their fortunes on the prairie. When the editors of *The Nor'wester* began in 1859 to campaign against the privileges enjoyed by the Hudson's Bay Company, they made some of the people realize that changes were going to take place even in their settlement so remote from the rest of the world. At last, in 1869, the people learned that the Hudson's Bay Company had surrendered its rights in the west to the Dominion of Canada.

THIS NEWS ALARMS THE METIS

There were about 12,000 people living in the area we now know as Manitoba. Most of them were Métis, the descendants of the French fur-traders and voyageurs and of the Indian women they had married. When the Métis learned what was happening they did not like it. The Hudson's Bay Company was, they thought, handing them over to Canada for a sum of money. It seemed to them that they were being "sold like cattle". If the people of the Red River had been consulted, or if they had been told that they would not lose their land, it is probable that the change would have taken place without any trouble. But no one bothered to discuss the matter with the settlers.

Even before the North West Territories were handed over to Canada, the Canadian Government sent out surveyors who ran their lines right through the lands on which the Métis lived. When the Métis saw the surveyors with their strange instruments trespassing on their property, they became even more alarmed. Unfortunately some of the surveyors were rude to the Métis, and teased them, telling them they would lose their land. Rumours spread like wildfire, and the situation soon became serious.

LOUIS RIEL

Louis Riel was one of the best educated and ablest of the Métis. His grandmother, Marie Anne Lagimodière, was the first white woman to make her home in the Red River Valley. His grandfather, Jean Baptiste Lagimodière, was the hardy voyageur who interrupted a party in Montreal to tell Lord Selkirk what was happening in his colony. Louis was such a clever boy that the priests advised his father to send him to Montreal to go to school and college. They hoped he would become a priest but he came back to Red River and very soon became a leader among the Métis.

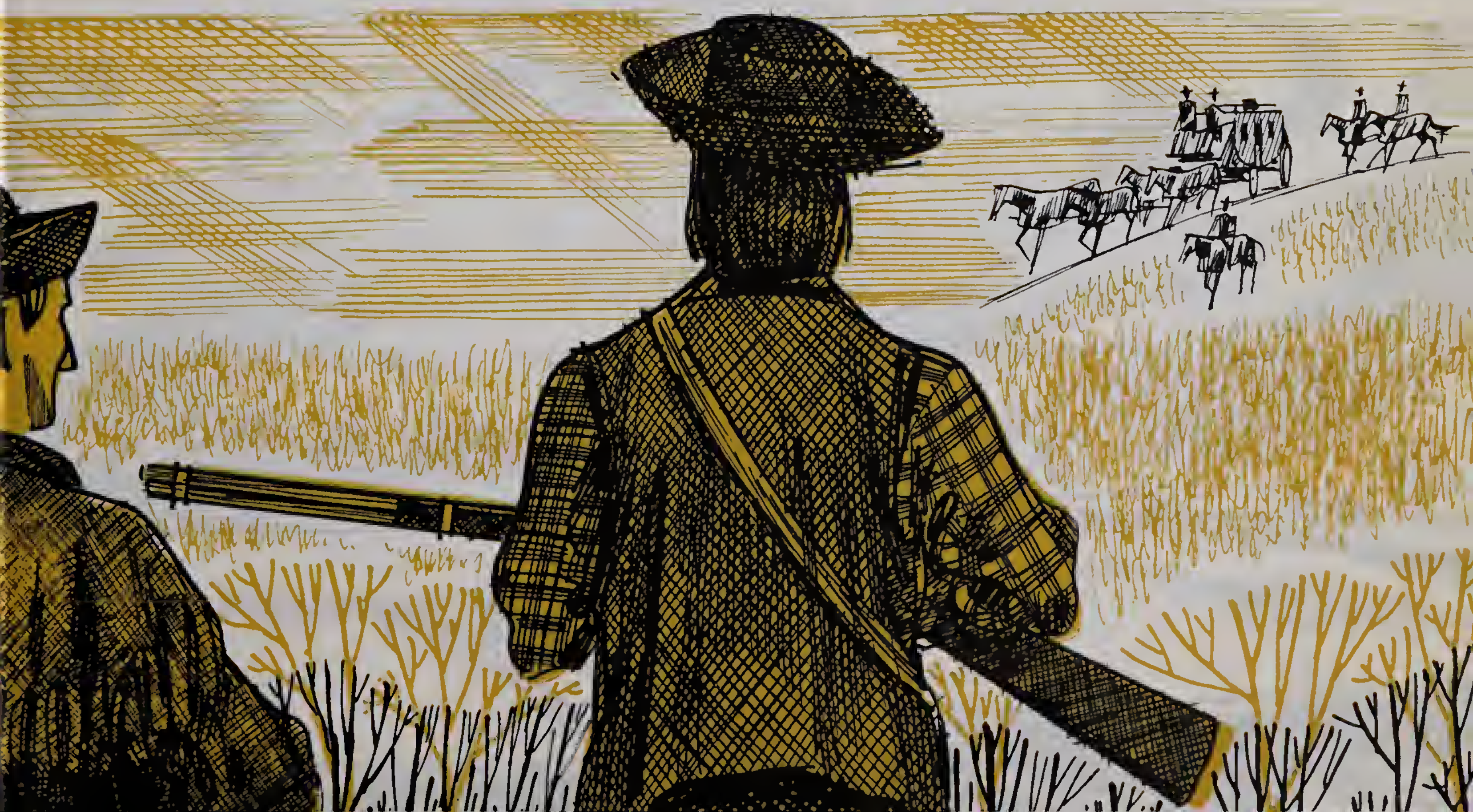
THE RED RIVER INSURRECTION

In 1869 the Canadian Government sent William McDougall out to take over the government from Governor Mactavish of the Hudson's Bay Company. Unfortunately Mactavish was very ill. Either because he did not approve of the withdrawal of the Hudson's Bay Company or because he was too ill to care what happened, he did nothing to help the Métis understand what was happening.

When Louis Riel heard that McDougall was on his way, he decided to take action. If the new governor took over before the Métis had a guarantee that their rights would be respected, they might be unfairly treated. So a party of Métis, led by Riel, ordered the surveyors to stop their work. A committee met McDougall at the border and told him he could not enter the country until he came to an understanding with the inhabitants.

When it looked as if McDougall and his party might break through the barrier and come in and take Fort Garry, the headquarters of the Hudson's Bay Company, Riel and his men seized the fort themselves. Riel called on the English-speaking parishes to send representatives to meet representatives of the Métis to consider what should be done. Riel's stand was that government by the Hudson's Bay Company had come to an end, and Canada was not to take over until December 1, so some government had to be formed to look after the settlement. The Métis were trying to protect their rights as British citizens and it is not fair to describe them as rebels against the Queen. Later Sir John A. Macdonald said that his government held "that under the circumstances of the case, it did not amount to treason".

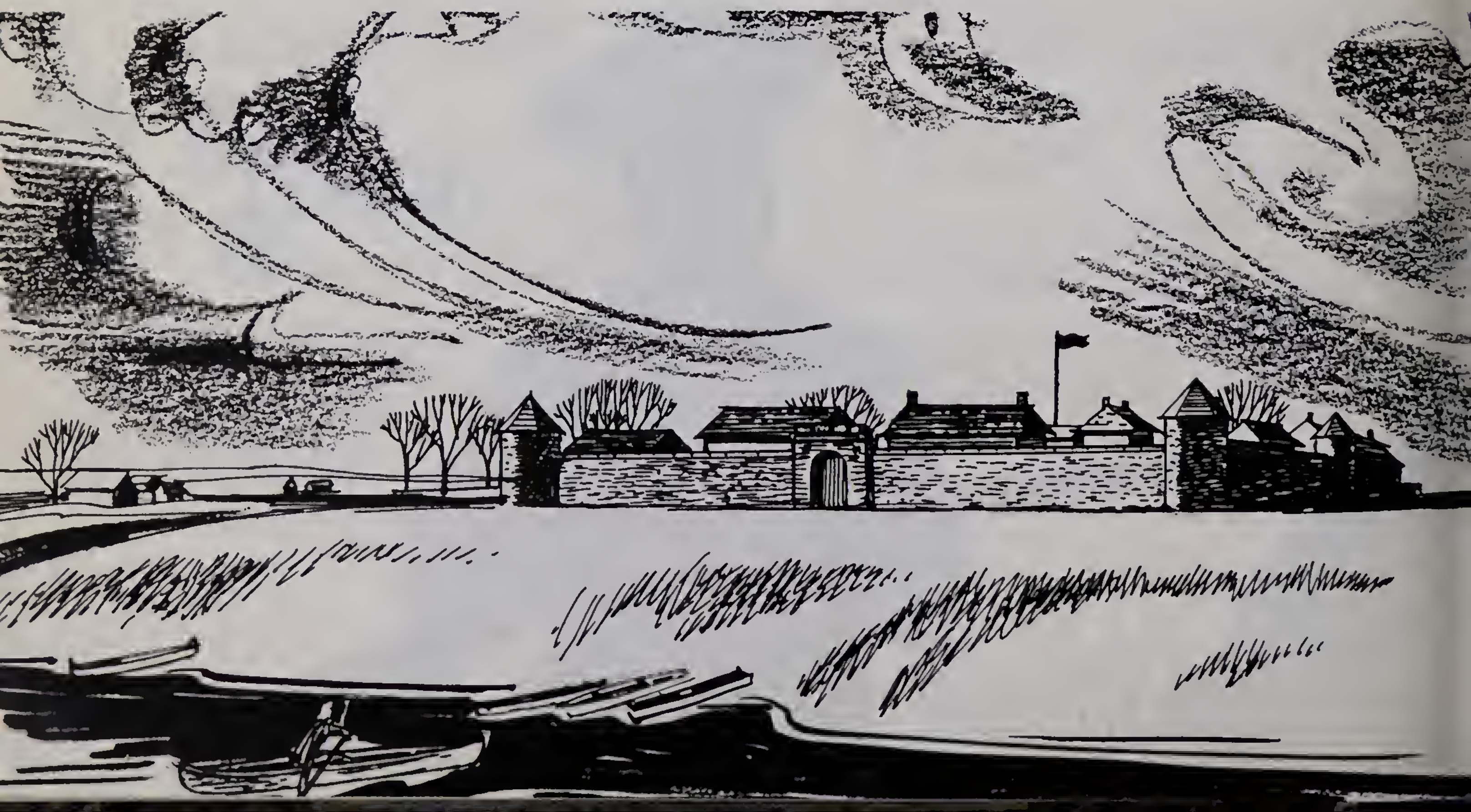
The Métis would not allow the governor to enter the province until they had some assurance that their rights would not be taken away from them.



All might have been well if McDougall had been wiser. Unfortunately he decided to treat the Métis as rebels. He had been instructed not to take over the government until he had word that the transfer of the territory to Canada had been completed. Nevertheless, he issued a proclamation on December 1 announcing that he was governor of the North West Territories. Riel and the Métis refused to allow McDougall to enter and he retreated to St. Paul where everyone laughed at the amusing plight of the governor who had to take refuge in a foreign city. The Canadian Government called him back to Ottawa for it was clear that he could not handle the situation.

Something had to be done. Macdonald asked Bishop Taché of St. Boniface to hurry back from Rome to try to quiet the Métis, and he sent Donald Smith of the Hudson's Bay Company to confer with Riel. On January 19, with the thermometer at twenty below zero, a great crowd of men gathered in the courtyard of Fort Garry to hear what Smith had to propose. It was too cold to continue the meeting for long, so they came back again the next day and decided to elect twenty English-speaking representatives and twenty Métis to discuss what should be done.

Lower Fort Garry, about sixteen miles north of Winnipeg on the Red River, is the only stone fort still standing in the West. The Hudson's Bay Company leased it to the Motor Country Club for many years. It is now an historical museum.



This convention drew up a list of rights to present to the Canadian Government and chose delegates to go to Ottawa to discuss the rights they demanded.

For nearly eight months provisional government under Louis Riel was the only government in the Red River Valley. Riel and his colleagues had a difficult time, for there were newcomers from the east who considered him and his colleagues ignorant half-breeds and challenged their authority. Although his government had capable men in it, it never had general support. The newcomers from Canada scorned it; the descendants of the Selkirk settlers, though they were angry because they had not been consulted about the transfer of the territory to Canada, were unwilling to take action against the representatives of the Canadian Government. Riel and his colleagues preserved order by the simple, though not very democratic, method of putting in prison all the leaders who disagreed with them.

RIEL'S FATAL MISTAKE

Louis Riel made, however, one great and fatal mistake. Among the prisoners was Thomas Scott, an Irish Protestant from Ontario. Scott had been very active in his opposition to Riel, and had been arrested several times and then had either been released or had escaped. He was brought to trial on the charge of insubordination and breaking parole. Then, without any of the safeguards of British justice, he was given a hurried trial, condemned to death, and shot by a firing-squad. The situation was more difficult because Scott was a Protestant and the Métis were Roman Catholics. There was very bitter feeling in Ontario and the Government of Ontario offered a reward for the capture of the "murderers of Thomas Scott".

Macdonald, Howe, and Cartier conferred with the delegates who went to Ottawa to present their list of rights, and in May the Parliament of Canada passed a bill creating the Province of Manitoba. On July 15 the proclamation was made which established Manitoba as the fifth province of the Dominion. A constitution was drawn up granting the citizens, white, Métis, and half-breeds alike, the right to elect representatives to a Provincial Legislature and to the House of Commons. Thus the Métis were given the means of protecting their rights lawfully. Titles to their land were given to them and land was set aside for further grants for their children in recognition of their descent from the original owners of the country.

THE WOLSELEY EXPEDITION

Late in May a military force under Col. Garnet Wolseley set out to Red River to see that the change was brought about without further trouble. Since the soldiers of one country do not travel through another country without permission, the expedition had to travel by the old fur-trading route from Fort William to Lake Winnipeg and up the Red River instead of by the shorter route through the United States. The journey took ninety-six days.

Riel was still acting as head of the Provisional Government and was waiting at Fort Garry to hand the government over peaceably to the new governor. He believed that the Canadian Government had promised amnesty to all who had taken part in the insurrection. Just before the expedition arrived, however, Riel was told that the troops were determined to avenge the death of Thomas Scott. His friends urged him to disappear so he crossed the river to the Métis settlements and was soon on his way to the border. Col. Wolseley found Fort Garry empty and the soldiers moved in without firing a shot.

WHAT HAPPENED TO RIEL?

Since the Métis still considered Riel their leader, they elected him to the House of Commons but he did not attempt to take his place there. The people of Ontario were still so bitter about the shooting of Thomas Scott that if Riel had been found there he would have been arrested. The story is told that one day he went to the House of Commons and signed the members' book, but no one recognized him and he never appeared there again. In 1875 the Canadian Parliament passed an act banishing the leaders of the rising for five years and Riel went to the United States. Later he returned to Canada at the request of the Métis of Saskatchewan to lead another rising against the government. For his part in it he paid the penalty that unsuccessful rebels pay whether their cause is just or unjust — the penalty of death on the scaffold.

Riel believed sincerely that his people were being treated unfairly. If it had not been for the fatal mistake of killing Scott, Louis Riel might have earned a place in Canadian history beside that of William Lyon Mackenzie and Louis Joseph Papineau as a defender of the rights of the people.

31. The Riders of the Plains

> "In the little crimson manual it's written plain and clear
> That those who would wear the scarlet coat shall say good-bye
> to fear."
>
> Robert W. Service: *Clancy of the Mounted*

While the Hudson's Bay Company controlled the great area drained by the rivers flowing into Hudson Bay, it made the laws and was responsible for maintaining order there. But when the Dominion bought this territory and organized part of it into the Province of Manitoba, a huge area in the North West was left with no one responsible for preserving law and order. Few white people lived on the plains west of Manitoba.

Reports of horse-stealing, of fighting between Indian tribes, of American traders giving whisky for furs began to reach Ottawa. One American trader had built a fort called Fort Whoop-Up to "whoop-up" the fur trade. So many American traders were coming into the country that there was danger that Canada might lose control of the prairies. That would mean losing British Columbia, too. The Dominion Government had promised British Columbia when it entered Confederation in 1871 that a railway would be built across the prairies to connect it with the other provinces. A railway could never be supported, however, unless there were settlers to use it. On the other hand, settlers would not come if they could not be sure that there was some authority to maintain law and order.

THE NORTH WEST MOUNTED POLICE FORCE ESTABLISHED

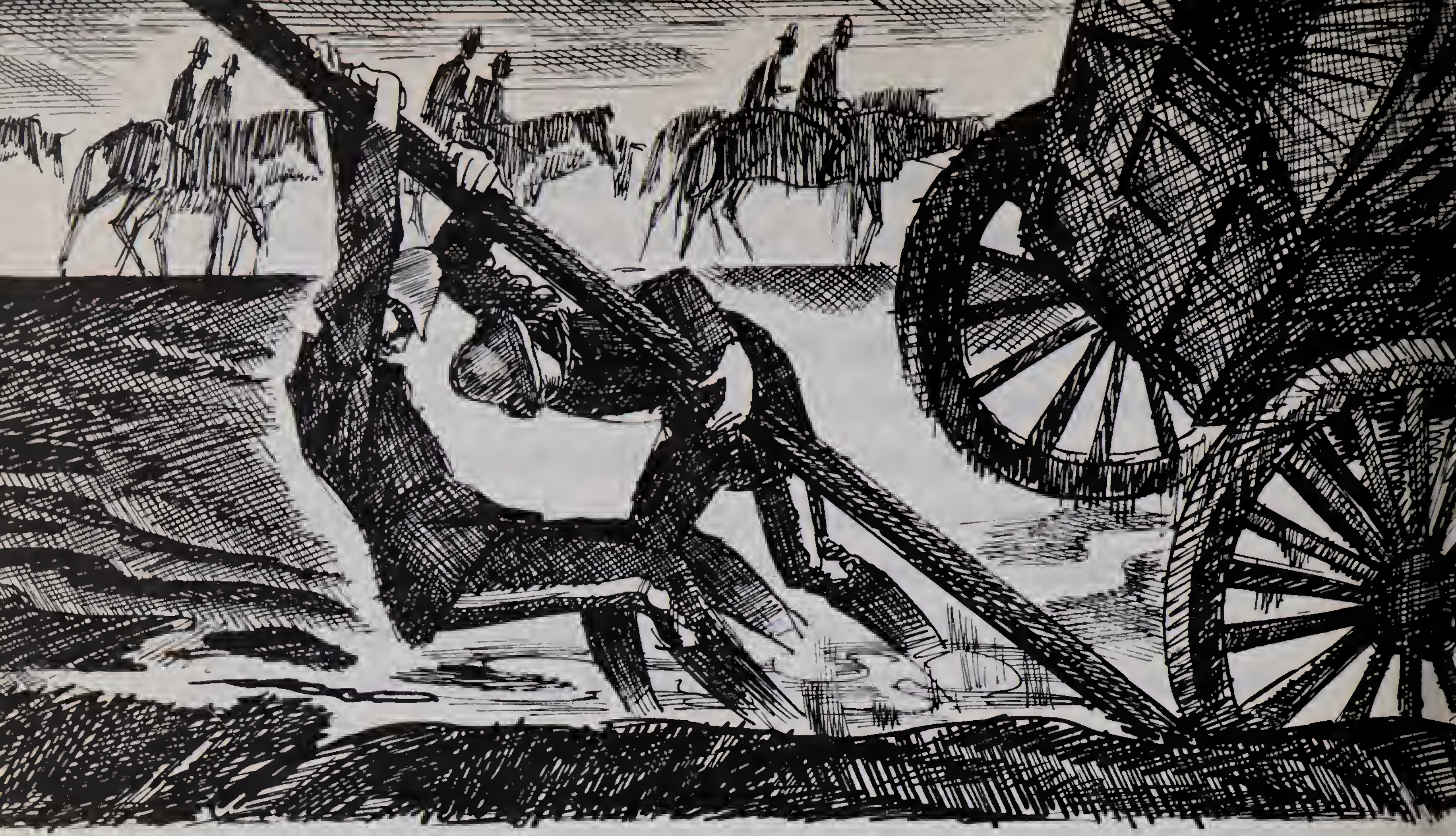
Sir John A. Macdonald gave the matter long and careful thought. At last, in 1873, he decided to entrust the preservation of law and order in the North West Territories to a new force to be known as the North West Mounted Police. This force was to number only three hundred men, a tiny body to patrol such an enormous territory. "There will be," said Sir John, "as little gold lace, and fuss and feathers, as possible." Almost the only military feature of the Police was its uniform, which, with its scarlet tunic, was intended to impress the Indians, many of whom had a kindly memory of the red-coated British regulars who had formerly been on duty at some of the forts in the prairie country. The uniform of the Police was intended to remind them that the Police were, in fact, the "Soldiers of the Queen".

In the early summer of 1874 the three hundred men chosen to make up this force gathered in southern Manitoba. There were six troops of fifty men each. Half of them had spent the winter at Fort Garry drilling in preparation for their duties. The others came from the East to join them, travelling by American railways as far as they could, for there were no railways in western Canada at that time.

Even before they started on their march west they had their difficulties. The horses stampeded during a severe electrical storm.

> "A thunder-bolt fell in the midst of the horses," wrote young Sam Steele. "Terrified, they broke their fastenings and made for the side of the corral. The six men on guard were trampled under foot as they tried to stop them. The maddened beasts overturned the huge wagons, dashed through a row of tents, scattered everything, and made for the gate of the large field where we were encamped. In their mad effort to pass they climbed over one another to the height of many feet. I had full view of the stampede, being not more than fifty yards from the horses as they rushed at the gate and attempted to pass it, scrambling and rolling over one another in a huge mass. One of the inspectors jumped on a horse and chased after the wild animals for over fifty miles across the border. In twenty-four hours' riding he rounded them up and brought them back."

In July, the North West Mounted Police began its march into the West. First came Troop A on dark bay horses,



Across the bleak prairie, through swamps and marshes, fording rivers, up and down hills, the North West Mounted Police moved westward to establish their posts.

Troop B on brown, Troop C on chestnut, Troop D on grey, Troop E on black, and Troop F on light bay. Then followed a string of ox-carts, prairie schooners, wagons, mowing-machines and other agricultural implements, and cattle for food, for the force had to take with it everything it needed, including meat "on the hoof". The column was a mile and a half long. The plan was to march through the country west to the Rockies, then north to Edmonton, then east to Swan River, which was to be their headquarters. But the expedition was more difficult than they had expected. They did not always find pasture for their horses; men and animals became ill as a result of drinking impure water. The force had to change its plans. One troop went to Edmonton, two went to Swan River. The other three pushed on to establish a post on the Old Man River, where the town of Fort Macleod now stands. On their way they passed Fort Whoop-Up, which the whisky traders had deserted before the police reached it.

The first job was to put a stop to the selling of whisky to the Indians. American traders had been coming up from the South and trading liquor for furs. In the early years of their trading with the Indians the Hudson's Bay Company and the North West Company had either traded rum and whisky for furs or had treated the Indians to liquor after the trading was over. Many of the Indians craved liquor and would barter anything they had for it. Gradually the Hudson's Bay Company put a stop to the practice of giving liquor to the Indians because it had such a bad effect upon them, but the American traders were usually independent, each man for himself, and each eager to make a quick profit no matter how harmful the methods he used. At Fort Whoop-Up the traders could get a buffalo robe for two cups of whisky and a good horse for three gallons. A group of drunken Indians could be very dangerous. Settlers did not dare to take up land for fear of trouble with the Indians. Buffalo hunters from Manitoba sometimes hesitated to go out on the western plains except in large, well-armed parties. Sometimes Indians who had been unfairly treated by a white man would take revenge on the next white traders they happened to meet.

The N.W.M.P. soon put the fear of the law into the "whisky jacks", as the traders had been called. Before long Colonel Macleod wrote, "I am happy to be able to report the complete stoppage of the whisky trade throughout this whole section of the country, and that the drunken riots which in former years were almost a daily occurrence, are now entirely at an end: in fact, a more peaceable community than this, with a very large number of Indians camped along the river, could not be found anywhere."

At the same time, the police gained the confidence and respect of the Indians. Chief Crowfoot, the wise and powerful leader of the Blackfoot Indians, had a high regard for Colonel Macleod, to whom the Indians gave the name "Bull's Head".

"Three years ago, when the Police first came into the country," declared Crowfoot, "I met and shook hands with Bull's Head. Since that time he has made me many promises. He kept them all — not one has been broken. . . . If the Police had not come to this country, where would we all be now? Bad men and whisky were killing us so fast that very few of us would be left to-day. The Mounted Police have protected us as the feathers of the bird protect it from the frosts of winter."

The Police did not win the respect of all the Indians immediately. Some of them had to be taught that the Mounties could not be defied. When the Canadian Pacific Railway was being built, Chief Pie-a-Pot of the Crees tried to make trouble. He ordered his braves to gallop around the workmen and fire shots over their heads. He set up camp right in the way of the railway line and refused to move. The Mounted Police were called in and a corporal and a constable rode over to Pie-a-Pot's camp and gave him exactly fifteen minutes to move away. When the Indians did not obey, the corporal got off his horse, and calmly knocked down the key-pole of every teepee in the camp. He then said to Pie-a-Pot, "Now get out." Pie-a-Pot decided to accept his advice.

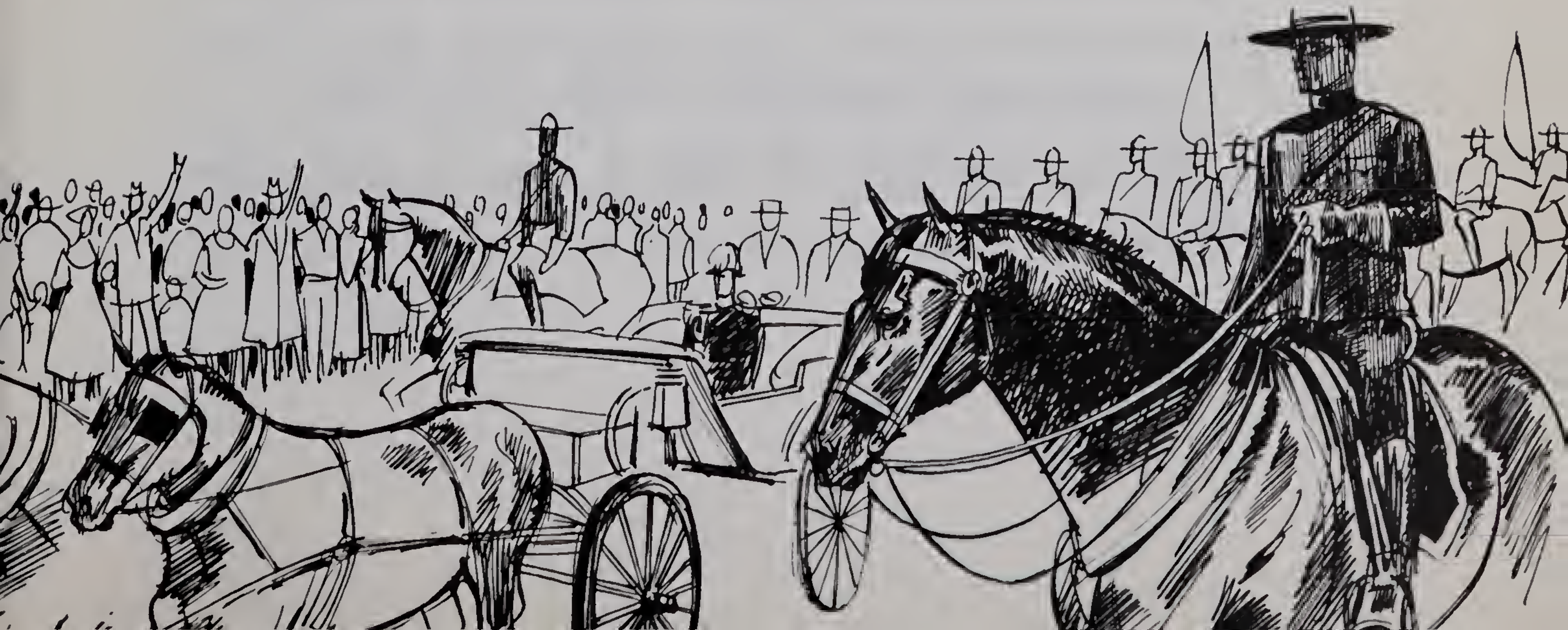
Over two hundred Crees wandered down into the United States. When the American authorities decided to send them back, a regiment of U.S. cavalry escorted them to the border where they were met by three Mounties.

It was by fearless methods such as these that the North West Mounted Police maintained order on the outskirts of civilization. Once they were on the track of a criminal they did not give up until they had him under lock and key. "The Mounties always get their man" became a tradition. Many people think this is their motto but they are mistaken. The motto of the force is "Maintiens le droit", which means "Uphold the right".

THE R.C.M.P. TO-DAY

In 1920 the name of the North West Mounted Police was changed to Royal Canadian Mounted Police, and the duties of the force were greatly extended. It is still the only police force in the Far North, and it acts as Provincial Police in all the provinces except Ontario and Quebec. It protects government buildings and dockyards, and enforces the laws against smuggling by land, sea, or air. If anyone is suspected of being disloyal to Canada, or of being a spy for a foreign power, the R.C.M.P. investigates. To-day the force has about six thousand members. There are training schools in Regina and in Rockcliffe, near Ottawa, where new members are carefully trained for their duties, with special instruction in wrestling, boxing, ju-jitsu, and horsemanship. Their "Musical Ride", which is cavalry drill to the music of the band, is famous the world over.

The Royal Canadian Mounted Police escort the Governor-General to the opening of Parliament. They guard the Parliament Buildings.



32. Bands of Steel

"They snared a savage continent in steel."
CHARLES G. D. ROBERTS: *These Three Score Years*

Sir John A. Macdonald had promised British Columbia a railway which would connect it with Eastern Canada and he had every intention of keeping his word. The Intercolonial Railway was being built to connect the Maritime Provinces with Canada, as had been promised in the British North America Act. The time had come to build the railway to the West. "Until this grand work is completed," Sir John declared, "our Dominion is little more than a geographic expression."

Everyone knew it would be a stupendous task. Surveyors would have to find the best routes through the rocky hills north of Lake Superior and the easiest passes through the high mountains of British Columbia. Engineers would have to design bridges and tunnels. Workmen would have to blast tunnels through solid rock, fill in swamps, make cuttings through hills, cut ties, put them in place and lay the track. It would be "pick and shovel and wheelbarrow" work, for there were no steam shovels, no pneumatic drills, no caterpillar tractors in those days. One recent invention would be a great help — dynamite, first made in 1862. There would have to be a supply department to look after bringing the supplies to the end of track and there would have to be men to look after feeding the workmen and providing them with a place to sleep. No unemployment then for any able-bodied man who wanted a job! It would take thousands of men and millions of dollars. Many Canadians thought it was an impossible undertaking.

Two companies offered to build the line. The government chose Sir Hugh Allan, who had built up the Allan Steamship lines. He formed the Canadian Pacific Railway Company and the government gave him the contract to build the line.

THE PACIFIC SCANDAL

One day a member rose in the House of Commons and told a shocked audience that Sir Hugh Allan had donated a large amount of money to the Conservative party for election expenses. The people opposing Sir John's government now called themselves the Liberal party. It included many Reformers from Upper Canada and the Clear Grits, also some Reformers from Lower Canada and the Parti Rouge. The Liberals at once accused the government of accepting a bribe. The Conservatives could not deny that Sir Hugh Allan had given them $350,000 but they insisted that every political party took money from its friends for election expenses. This was true, but people thought the sum was so large that surely Sir Hugh expected some return for his money. The Liberals attacked the government so vigorously that Macdonald and his colleagues resigned and an election was held. Macdonald had made no personal profit from the gift and he hoped that the voters would understand that and return his party to office. He was disappointed. The electors gave the Liberals an overwhelming majority, and in 1873 Alexander Mackenzie became Prime Minister.

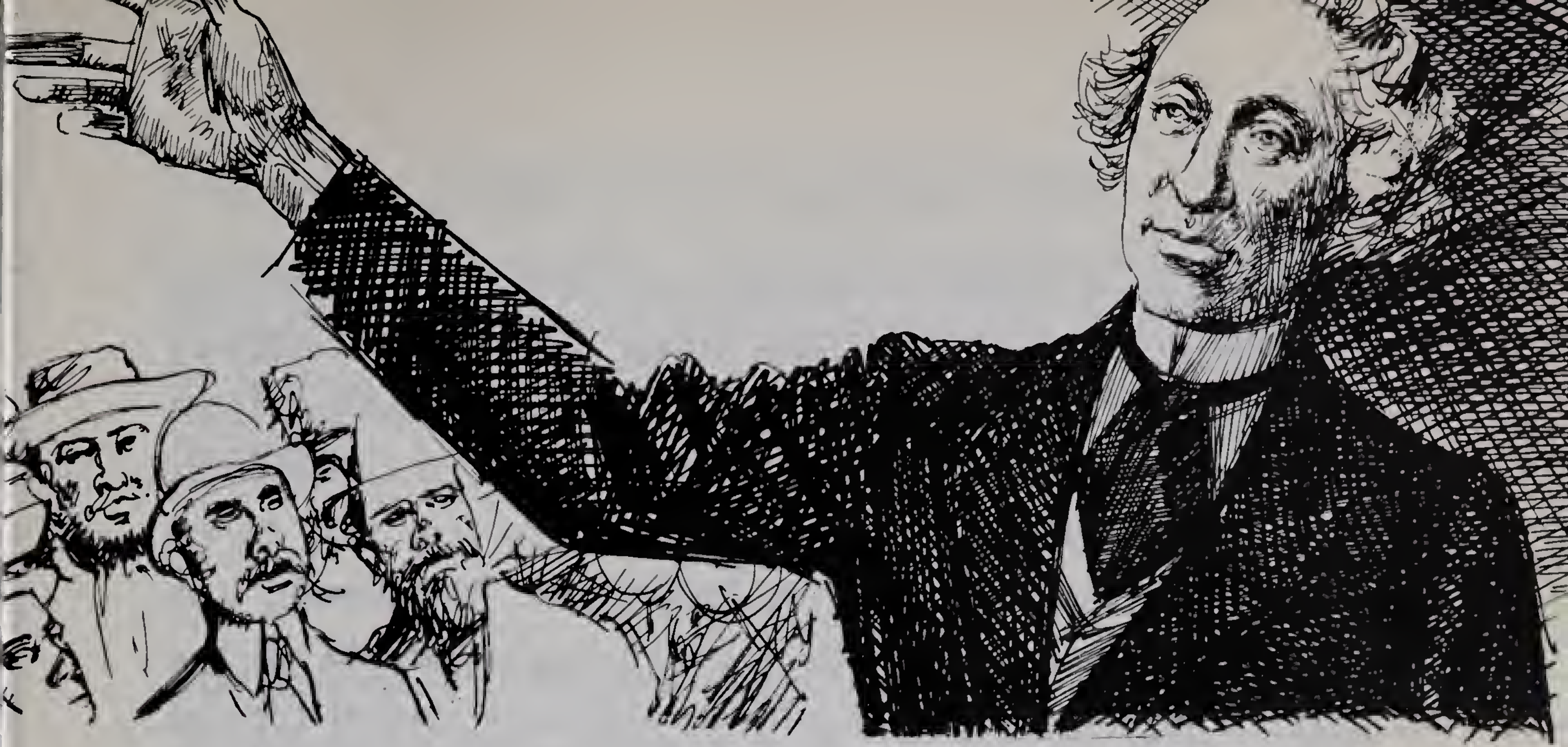
THE NEW PRIME MINISTER MOVES SLOWLY

The Liberals had opposed the plan for the railway and had been certain it would never make enough money "to pay for its axle grease". Mackenzie tried to persuade British Columbia to settle for a good wagon road and a telegraph line to connect it with eastern Canada, but British Columbia would not agree to his proposals. During the years Mackenzie was in power, from 1873 to 1878, all that the Liberals did to keep the promise to British Columbia was to build short lines of railway to connect the waterways by which travellers had been accustomed to make their way from eastern Canada to the West. This was little use when the rivers and lakes were frozen over in the winter.

Mackenzie was an honest man and he brought about some important reforms. One was the introduction of the secret ballot. Now no one could be bullied into voting as his employer told him to vote. Formerly, too, the elections had lasted several days and every community was in a state of uproar until the elections were over. Mackenzie passed a law saying that the election was to be completed in one day. But Mackenzie had very bad luck. It was not his fault that there was a world-wide depression during his term of office, and that Canada had three of the worst crops in her whole history. Whenever there is a depression or unemployment in any country, the citizens tend to blame the government, or at least to demand that the government should do something to improve conditions.

MACDONALD RETURNS TO POWER

Macdonald had been in politics a long time and he knew that hard times could make the voters want a change of government. While he was in opposition he often said, "Give the Grits rope enough and they will hang themselves", for he knew that it is difficult for the government in power to avoid making enemies. He worked hard, travelling through the country districts and talking to the



In 1878 Macdonald came before the voters with a new slogan, "The National Policy". Canadians were unhappy about the hard times during Alexander Mackenzie's term as Prime Minister and they decided to take a chance on Macdonald and his new policy.

people. He had a great deal of charm and soon the voters began to think there might have been some mistake about the Pacific Scandal.

Macdonald looked for some new policy for the Conservatives which might win the support of the public and he found it in the Canada First movement. A group of men, some Liberals, some Conservatives, had begun to advocate a policy which they called "Canada First", hoping thus to build up a strong national spirit, pride in Canada, and faith in its future. Some of them favoured putting duties on goods coming into Canada so that Canadian factories would be free from competition. John A. saw that this policy had considerable support, so he decided to adopt it, giving it the name the National Policy.

In the election campaign of 1878 John A. and his associates argued that the National Policy would encourage the building of factories, provide employment, and bring prosperity once more. Hard times had made the people desperate. Macdonald had always been popular. The electors forgot about the Pacific Scandal and elected the Conservatives.

The people of British Columbia were so angry because the government had done so little about the promised railway that some of them began to talk about withdrawing from the Dominion. If the vision of the Fathers of Confederation of a Canada stretching "from sea to sea" was to be realized, the railway must be built soon. Macdonald was determined that it must be built through Canada all the way. There were people who would have settled for the easier route south of the Great Lakes through the United States but Macdonald would not hear of that. It must be a *Canadian* railway.

THE MEN WHO BUILT THE RAILWAY

John A. had to find men who were bold enough, capable enough, and rich enough to plan and carry out the job – men willing to risk their fortunes in a great enterprise. He approached a wealthy Montrealer, George Stephen, President of the Bank of Montreal, who had just made a lot of money in a railway deal in the United States. Everyone realized that building the railway was a gamble. The men who undertook the job might make a fortune or they might lose every dollar they possessed. George Stephen was able to find men willing to take the chance. They formed a company to build the railway and agreed to complete it in ten years. But they drove a hard bargain with the government which agreed:

1. To hand over to the new company the 713 miles of railway already built with all its equipment;
2. To provide $25,000,000;
3. To give the company a land grant of 25,000,000 acres of land in the fertile belt between Winnipeg and the Rocky Mountains;

4. To guarantee to the Canadian Pacific Railway a monopoly of the traffic in western Canada for twenty years by forbidding any competing company to build south of its line any railway which would connect with American railways.

GEORGE STEPHEN

The president of the new Canadian Pacific Railway Company was George Stephen, who had started work at the age of fifteen in Scotland in a shop where cotton, linen, and woollen goods were sold. One day his cousin, William Stephen of Montreal, asked him how he would like to come to Canada and join him in the importing business. Young George accepted and arrived in Montreal in 1850.

George Stephen had been in Canada only three years when his cousin sent him to London to buy cottons and woollens. William realized that the young man was a good judge of cloth, but he did not know yet what good business judgment and what boldness his young cousin possessed.

War had just broken out between Turkey and Russia. George Stephen knew the history of the textile industry well enough to know that the price of cloth goes up in wartime. Since there was no Atlantic cable in those days he could not consult William. He had to make his own decision. Boldly he bought and shipped so much cloth that when it arrived in Montreal William thought his young cousin must have lost his mind. Then England and France became involved in the war and the price of cloth rose sky-high, and the Stephen firm made a fortune.

When William died George bought the business and before long became a very wealthy man. He built a splendid house in Montreal's most fashionable district, bought fine furniture, and even hired a valet to look after his clothes. He became interested in banking and read every book he could find on the subject. In 1876 he became president of the Bank of Montreal. When he and his cousin, Donald Smith, made a handsome profit out of a railway venture in the United States, he became convinced that railways were a good investment.

DONALD SMITH

Although Donald Smith was associated with the project of building the railway, his name did not at first appear on the list of those who formed the company. When he was a member of the House of Commons he had offended Sir John A. Macdonald and the Conservatives. Macdonald was willing to have Smith work with the others to build the line but he did not want the fact known for fear the Conservatives in Parliament would refuse to agree to the contract.

Donald Smith had a longer struggle to make a fortune than his cousin George Stephen had. When he was a boy in Scotland he had listened with delight to stories about the fur trade told by his uncle, John Stuart, a former chief factor of the Hudson's Bay Company. In 1838, when Donald was eighteen years old, he came to Canada with a letter of introduction from his uncle to George Simpson, the head of the Hudson's Bay Company in Canada. Simpson set him to work at once sorting muskrat skins. After a few years of sorting and baling furs in the warehouse in Lachine, young Donald was sent out to one remote trading-post after another. He spent twenty-seven years in trading-posts in Quebec and Labrador.

When the Hudson's Bay Company men were out in the distant posts, the Company kept back part of their pay and gave it to them when they came out on furlough. Smith was thrifty and he had a good sum to his credit which he had no intention of spending recklessly. He had not known his cousin, George Stephen, in Scotland but he knew that Stephen had made a lot of money so he decided to call on him to ask his advice. The wealthy, fashionable Mr. Stephen must have been surprised to see the roughly-dressed trader appear and introduce himself as his cousin. To add to his countrified appearance Donald Smith was carrying a brightly coloured carpet bag which he had bought to impress the Indians of Labrador.

When Smith came out of the north in 1869 to become head of the Montreal district of the Hudson's Bay Company, he became better acquainted with his rich cousin who gave him good advice about investing his money. In that same year, when Sir John A. Macdonald was looking for someone to go to the Red River Valley to bring about a peaceful settlement with Louis Riel, George Stephen advised him to send Donald Smith. When this mission had been accomplished, Macdonald asked Smith to become lieutenant-governor of Manitoba but Smith did not accept. Instead he ran for election to the House of Commons for a Manitoba constituency and was elected. He became Land Commissioner for the Hudson's Bay Company, and made a lot of money for himself out of the first Manitoba land boom.

Smith built a large home in Montreal and another west of Winnipeg at Silver Heights. He was a thrifty man but once he had built up a substantial fortune he was willing to risk some of it to make his fortune still larger. After he made money in his railway venture in the United States, he, like George Stephen, was ready to invest again in railways.

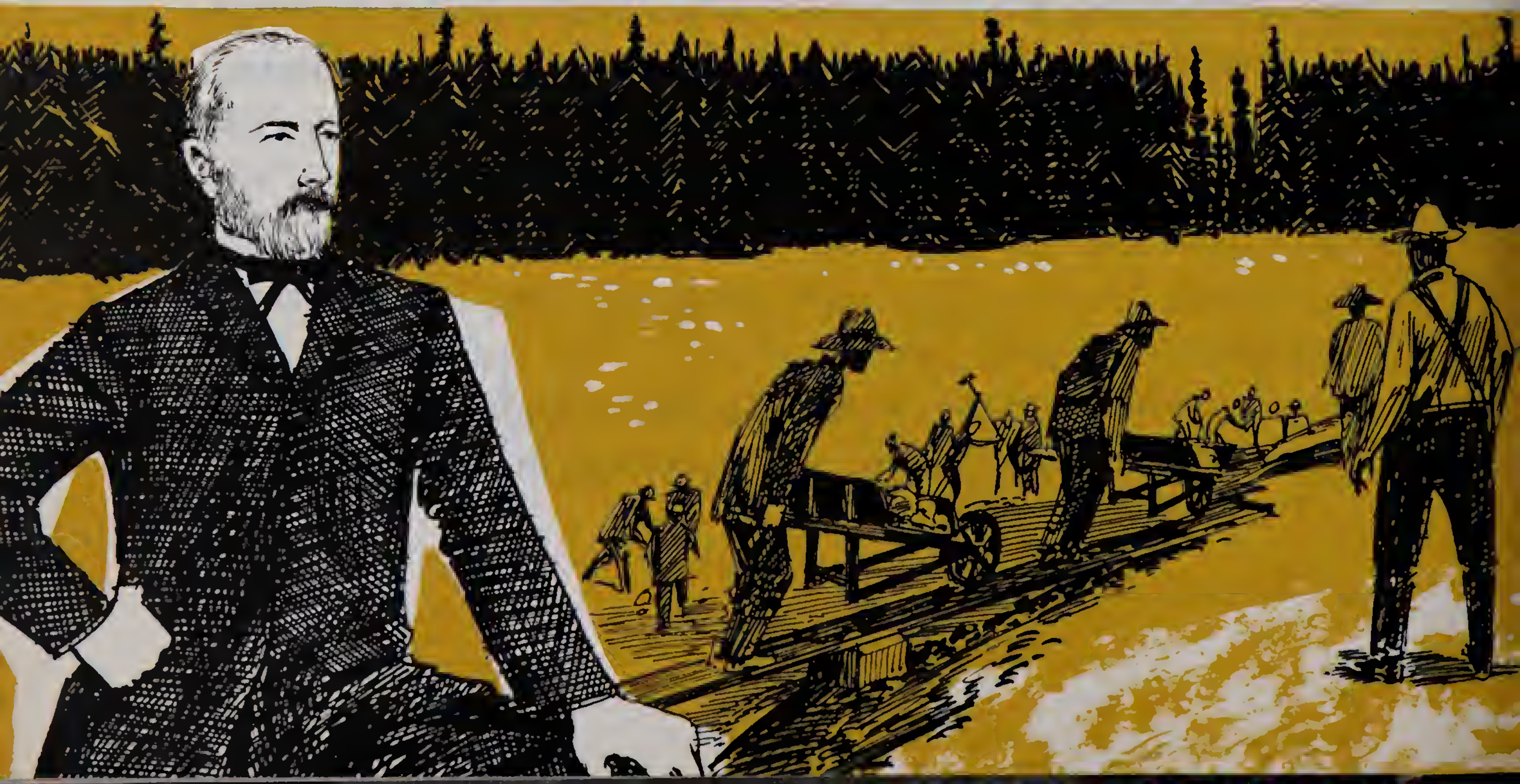
WILLIAM VAN HORNE

For general manager of the railway Stephen and Smith chose William Van Horne, an American who had made a name for himself in American railroading. When Van Horne was only eleven years old his father died, and at the age of fourteen William went to work to support his mother and his four younger brothers and sisters. He began as office boy and soon became a telegraph operator. By the time he was twenty-eight he was a superintendent, and by thirty-eight a general manager of an American railway. He was a big man with tremendous energy and determination and an enormous appetite. On his trips over the line he would sometimes wire ahead for two chicken dinners to be prepared at the next stop, and when he arrived he would eat them both.

When Van Horne was invited to become general manager of the Canadian Pacific Railway, his friends advised him not to accept because he had a very good job where he was. But building a transcontinental railway across new country was a bold undertaking which appealed to his imagination.

As soon as the route for the line was agreed upon, Van Horne started work in several places at once. One crew was pushing the line westward from Fort William to Winnipeg; another was building the only easy stretch of line, the road across the prairie west of Winnipeg; another was

William Van Horne kept a careful watch on the progress of the railway construction. "He always acted," stated one of his engineers, "as if nothing was impossible. He hated the expression 'can't' and he deleted the word 'fail' from his dictionary."



building eastward from Vancouver; others were working in the mountains, the most difficult part of the road. Van Horne seemed to be everywhere at once "going like a whirlwind wherever he went, and stimulating every man he met."

"He was the kind who would go out to the side of a mountain," one of his engineers declared, "and say 'Blow that down.' He wouldn't ask if or how it could be done; he would just say, 'Do it!' Sometimes the thing was impossible under ordinary circumstances, but he had such luck! . . . His luck, his daring, and his fearlessness carried him through."

"Van Horne is calm and harmless-looking. So is a she-mule," reported the Winnipeg *Sun*, "and so is a buzz-saw. You don't know their true inwardness until you go up and feel them."

On the prairie section alone, Van Horne had five thousand men with seventeen hundred teams of horses, mules, or oxen working night and day. In one year more than five hundred miles of track were laid. It was mostly due to Van Horne's relentless energy that the railway was completed in five years, half the time the company had expected to take.

SANDFORD FLEMING

Sandford Fleming, like George Stephen and Donald Smith, came from Scotland. He had been good at mathematics at school and when, at the age of eighteen, he came to Canada he became a surveyor. He was in Montreal when the Parliament Buildings were burned, and he was one of four young men who rescued the picture of the Queen from the burning building. When the railway boom began in the 1860's he became chief engineer of a railway line.

Fleming was one of the first to urge the building of a transcontinental railway. In 1863 he went to England to try to persuade the British Government to help to build a line from the head of the Great Lakes to the Red River Valley. He was convinced that a railway could be built and should be built so that "from Vancouver's Island to Nova Scotia, Great Britain would have an unbroken series of colonies, a grand confederation of provinces, skirting the whole United States frontier, and commanding at once the Atlantic and the Pacific."

When the government began the planning of the Intercolonial Railway, Sandford Fleming was appointed chief engineer, and again when the Canadian Pacific was first planned he became chief engineer of the proposed line. During the Mackenzie regime from 1873 to 1878, although little railway building was done, Fleming and gangs of surveyors were travelling across the country searching for the best route. In his first report he pointed out that the Canadian railway would provide a passage from England to China a thousand miles shorter than the Union Pacific of the United States, and therefore could hope to capture the traffic from the Far East.

Fleming at first favoured the Yellowhead Pass, through which the Canadian National Railway now runs, because the grade need not be so steep and the line would be less expensive to operate. The government, however, wanted the line close enough to the American border that Canadian traffic would not go to American railways. For that reason the Kicking Horse Pass was chosen.

Although Fleming would be remembered for his work as an engineer, he is more famous for his achievement in establishing Standard Time. Before the coming of railways, every city had its own time, calculated by the sun. The Grand Trunk ran on Montreal time which was twelve minutes faster than Kingston time and twenty-four minutes faster than Toronto time. The time problem made life difficult for both railway men and passengers.

When Sandford Fleming had to wait twelve hours for a train in a little railway station in Scotland because of confusion about time, he decided that something must be done. Since there are 360 degrees of latitude, he reasoned, the earth turns 15 degrees every hour. His proposal was that there should be twenty-four time belts, each 15 degrees wide, and that all the people in each time belt should observe the same time. As travellers moved west into another time belt, they would turn their watches back an hour. As they went east into the next time belt, they would turn their watches forward an hour. He wrote articles for magazines explaining his plan, and everywhere he went he talked about it. At last, in 1883, the railways of Canada and the United States accepted the plan for Standard Time, establishing five time zones, Atlantic, Eastern, Central, Mountain, and Pacific.

Many people objected furiously to the change. One American newspaper declared, "The sun is no longer boss of the job. People must eat, sleep, and work as well as travel by railroad time. The sun will be requested to rise and set by railroad time. . . . People will have to marry by railroad time, and die by railroad time. . . . We presume that the sun, moon, and stars will make an attempt to ignore the orders of the Railway Commission, but they, too, will have to give in at last."

THOMAS SHAUGHNESSY

When Van Horne first came to Canada he did not have much respect for the way Canadians did things and he did not mind letting them know it. When he wanted a capable man to look after supplies, then, it is not surprising that he brought in a man he had known before. This man was Thomas Shaughnessy, the son of an Irish policeman from Milwaukee.

Shaughnessy's job was to buy everything needed for the construction of the railway and to see that it was in the right place at the right time. He bought rails, bolts, and spikes; ties, and lumber for the stations; locomotive engines and cars; and even steamships to carry equipment up the Great Lakes to the gangs working on the North Shore line, and to Fort William for shipment to the end of track on the prairie. He had double-decker cars built for the men to sleep in and he bought the enormous quantities of food needed for the army of workmen.

First went the locating parties. Close behind them followed the men who cleared and built the roadbed. Behind them came the boarding cars, the cook cars, and the construction cars loaded with ties, or sleepers as they were called in those days. Then came the cars with enough rails, bolts and spikes for a mile of track. As soon as one mile of track was completed, the cars were moved on to the end of the track, and the rearguard moved up with the equipment for the next mile.

It was a job that only a man with great organizing ability could handle and Thomas Shaughnessy proved equal to the task.

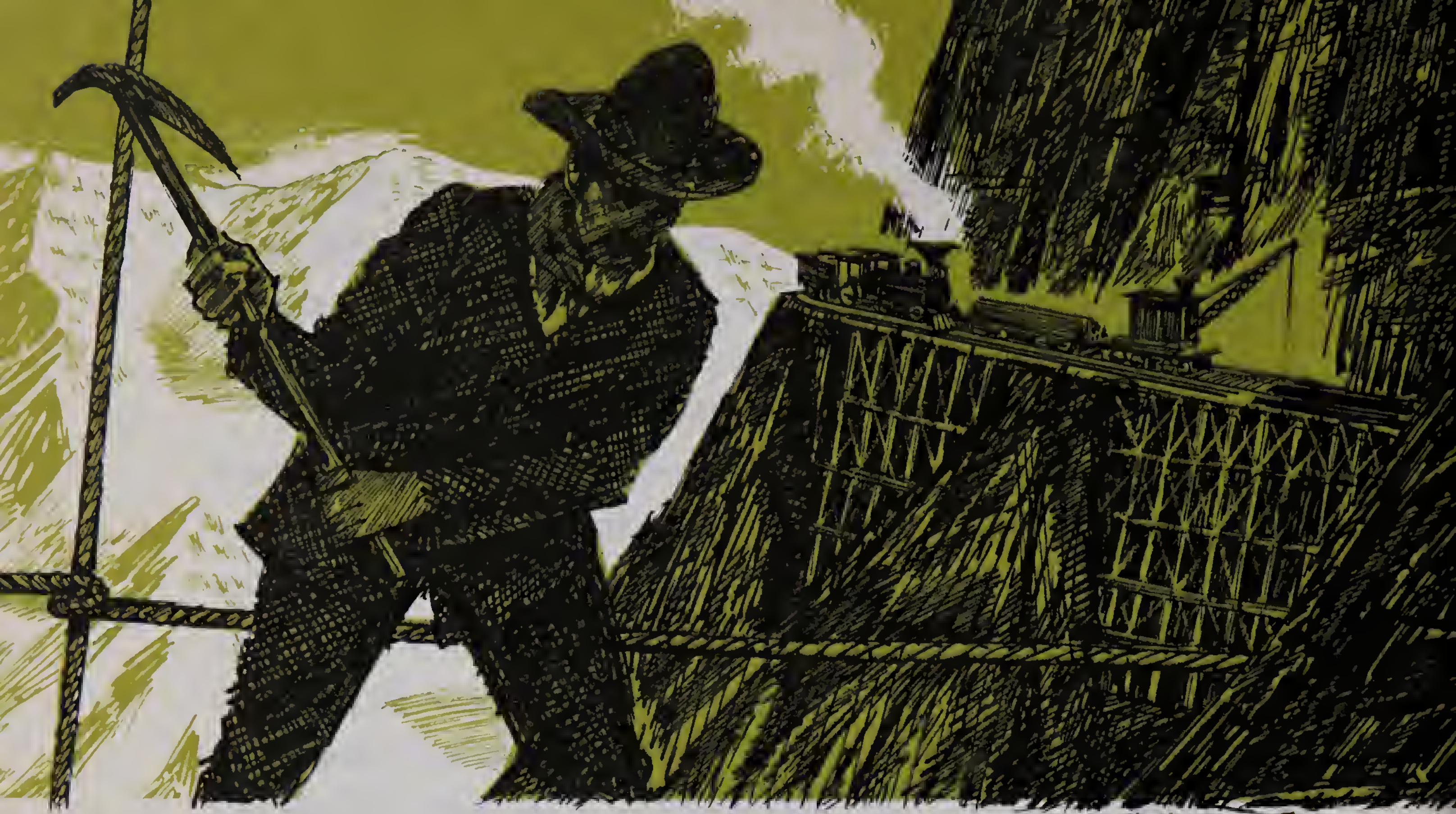
THE COMPANY HAS ITS TROUBLES

There were, of course, people who thought that $25,000,000 was far too much for the government to pay to the company. It was found, however, that it was not nearly enough. Building the railway cost so much that the directors had to come to the government over and over again for more money. They borrowed money in England until they could borrow no more. George Stephen and his associates pledged their own fortunes to complete the work. If the railway had failed they would have lost all they had.

At one time it seemed as though they would have to give up, but Stephen succeeded in borrowing some more money. Both Stephen and Smith belonged to the Grant clan. In the valley of the Spey, in the country where the Grant clan lived, there was a rock called Craigellachie. When the clan was summoned to battle the cry was "Stand fast, Craigellachie", and the meeting-place was Craigellachie Rock. Stephen cabled to Smith, "Stand fast, Craigellachie", and Smith knew that they must continue the struggle.

At another time there was no money in the treasury. The directors had raised all they could. Van Horne wired Stephen, "Have no means of paying wages, pay car can't go out, and unless we get further relief we must stop. Please inform Premier and Finance Minister. Do not be surprised, or blame me, if an immediate and most serious catastrophe happens."

All that was needed to tide them over was a final loan of $5,000,000. But the government had already asked Parliament to advance so much money for the railway that Macdonald was afraid to ask for more. Fortunately, the Minister of Railways convinced him that the failure of the Canadian Pacific would mean financial ruin in Canada, the ruin of the Conservative party, and the end of Macdonald's political career. Macdonald then persuaded Parliament to vote this final loan and the road was completed. If it had not been for the faith these men had in the future of Canada, it is likely that the Canadian Pacific Railway would have been the cause of the most disastrous financial crisis in Canadian history.



In the Rocky Mountains the roadbed had to be hacked out of the solid rock of the steep mountainside, long trestles had to be built to carry the rails and tunnels blasted through the mountain. It was dangerous work. One false step and a workman might fall hundreds of feet upon sharp rocks or into a raging torrent.

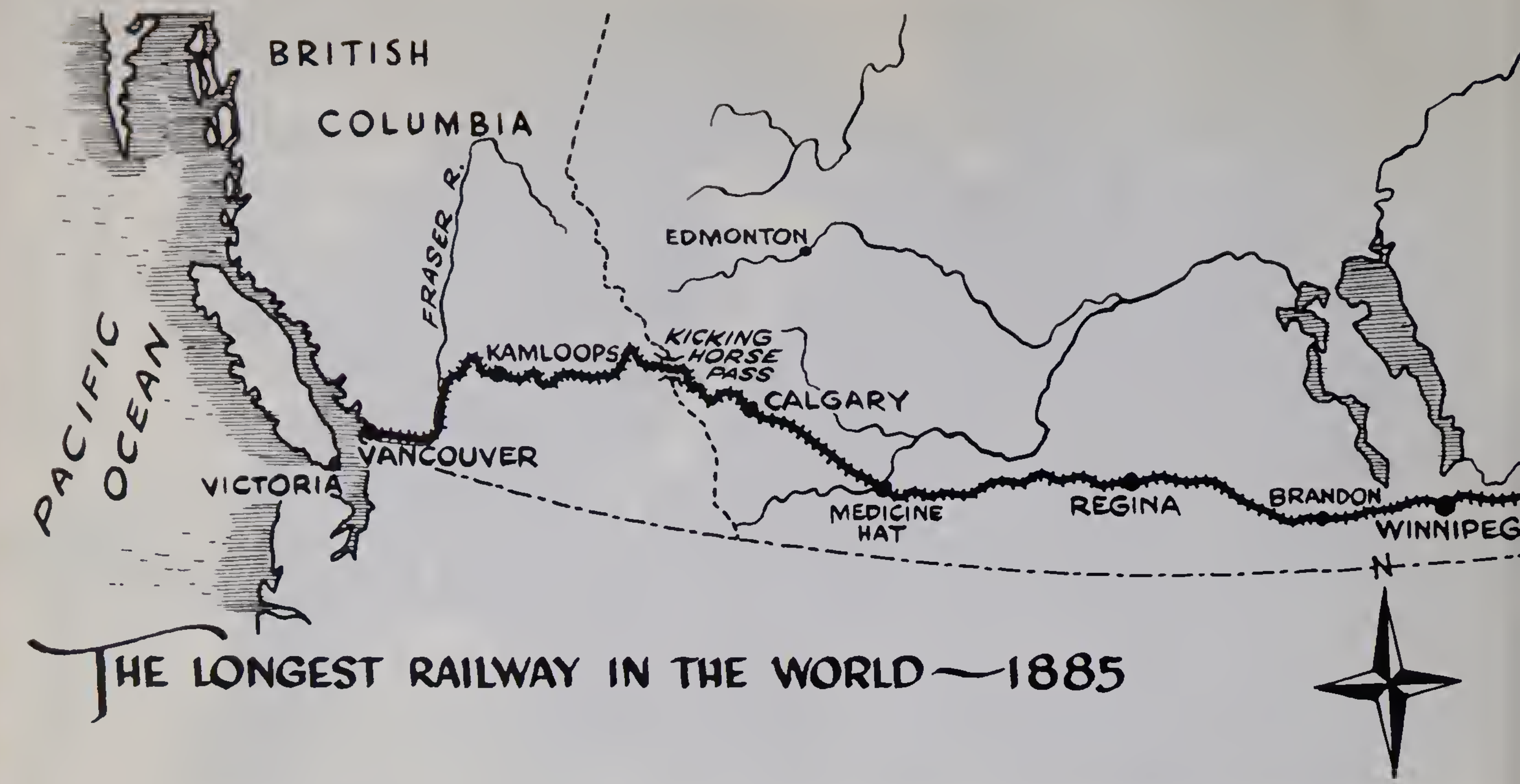
Almost insuperable obstacles had to be overcome in building the railway. North of Lake Superior the road had to be run through a wild barren country where a good roadbed could be made only by filling in almost bottomless swamps or blasting through great masses of rock. In one area between Thunder Bay and Kenora seven layers of track vanished, one below the other, in the muskeg, and more rock and gravel had to be poured in to make a firm roadbed. The stretch along the North Shore was very difficult, for the rock of the Canadian Shield was the toughest known to engineers. In the Rocky Mountains the line had to be built through the Kicking Horse Pass and Rogers Pass round steep precipices and through long tunnels.

THE LAST SPIKE

In November, 1885, a small group of the men who had planned and built the railway came over the new line to a little village in British Columbia to drive the last spike. In memory of Stephen's historic cable to Donald Smith the village received the name Craigellachie. The Governor-General had expected to be invited to the ceremony and had even ordered a silver spike for the occasion. Van Horne, however, announced that anyone who came must be connected with the railway or pay his own way, and declared, "The last spike will be as good an iron spike as any other on the road." No band played; no telegraph line relayed a blow by blow account of the event; no guns were fired in Montreal or in Vancouver to celebrate the completion of the line. Donald Smith drove the spike in; there was a moment of silence; then the workmen cheered. When Van Horne was asked to make a speech, he said, "All I can say is that the work has been done well in every way." The conductor called out, "All aboard for the Pacific!", the officials climbed aboard, the train pulled out, and the workmen went back to their work. Six months later the first passenger train puffed across the continent from Montreal to Vancouver. The longest railway line in the world was in operation, stretching across Canada from sea to sea.

TRADE WITH THE FAR EAST

For four centuries explorers had been searching for a North-West Passage to the rich trade of the Far East. No passage had been found *north of* the continent, and none suitable for commerce *through* the continent by lake and river, but the Canadian Pacific Railway now provided a safe and speedy North-West Passage *across* the continent to the Orient. Van Horne lost no time in providing a Pacific steamship service connection for the new railway. In July of 1886 the *W. B. Flint* brought the first cargo from Japan to the Pacific terminus of the new transcontinental


BRITISH COLUMBIA
PACIFIC OCEAN
FRASER R.
EDMONTON
KAMLOOPS
KICKING HORSE PASS
CALGARY
VANCOUVER
VICTORIA
MEDICINE HAT
REGINA
BRANDON
WINNIPEG
N

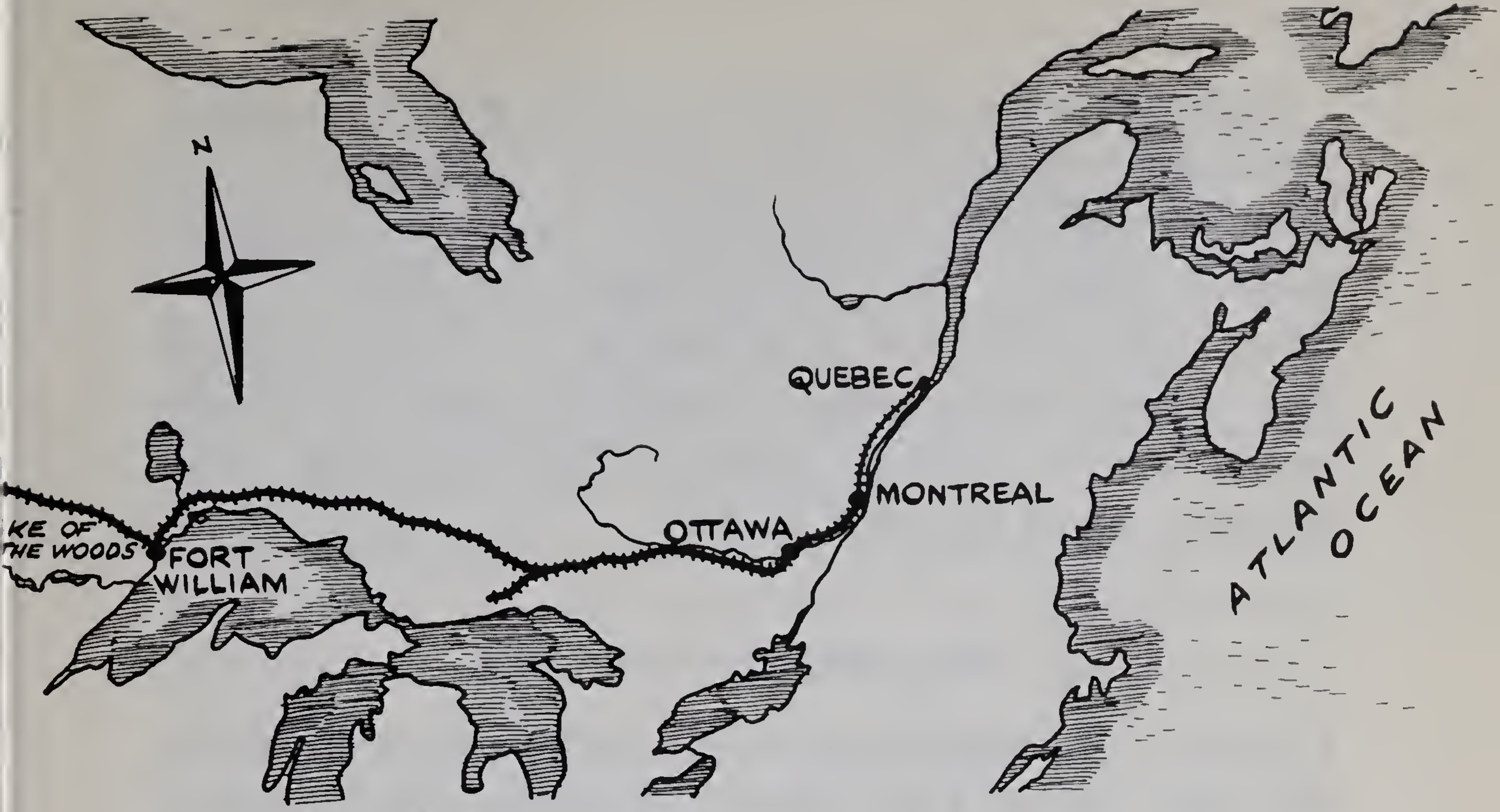
THE LONGEST RAILWAY IN THE WORLD—1885

railway. The next year three more chartered steamships, *Batavia, Parthia,* and *Abyssinia,* began regular service between Vancouver, Yokohama, and Hong Kong. Four years later the first of the famous "White Empresses", *Empress of China, Empress of India,* and *Empress of Japan,* carried passengers and freight regularly across the Pacific.

SUCCESS

The people who accused Macdonald of "pouring money down the gorges of British Columbia" were mistaken. From the day trains began to run from coast to coast the Canadian Pacific Railway was successful. It soon made enough profit to repay the government loan.

There can be no doubt that the transcontinental railway was an essential factor in building the new Dominion. It linked the East and the West and made the rapid development of the western plains possible. Moreover, it showed the world what Canadian enterprise and determination could accomplish.



33. Rebellion on the Saskatchewan

"Wide are the plains to the north and the westward:
  Drear are the skies to the west and the north —
Little they cared, as they snatched up their rifles,
  And shoulder to shoulder marched gallantly forth."
S. Livingston: *The Volunteers of '85*

The railway gangs were still laying the rails of the Canadian Pacific when the new line of steel was called upon to carry soldiers to the western prairies.

THE METIS ON THE SASKATCHEWAN FEAR THEY WILL LOSE THEIR HOMES

In the spring of 1885 rebellion broke loose in the Saskatchewan country. The Métis were restless again. The buffalo and other fur-bearing animals on which they had depended for a living were disappearing. The Métis were afraid that the railway and the settlers who would follow were going to end the way of life they had known.

Surveyors were already laying out the prairies in square townships and sections, ignoring the boundaries of the river lots which the Métis had taken up along the Saskatchewan River. The Métis begged for titles to their lands. When they sent a deputation to Ottawa to plead their cause, the Canadian Government gave them only empty promises, and did nothing. The Métis were afraid that they would lose their homes.

THEY SEND FOR LOUIS RIEL

Looking for a leader who could secure justice for them, the Métis sent for Louis Riel to come back from Montana, where he was teaching school.

Louis Riel was not the best leader they could have chosen. Since he had headed the Red River insurrection in Manitoba, he had spent some time in a mental hospital. Undoubtedly he had become a person of unbalanced mind. He was, however, a man of education and he had the interests of his own people at heart. When he returned to Canada, he first tried to obtain fair treatment by lawful means. He drew up a Bill of Rights, stating the grievances of the Métis. Most of the requests in Riel's Bill of Rights were just and reasonable. Unfortunately the government at Ottawa did not pay any attention to this petition. Most of the members of the government were so very busy with affairs nearer to Ottawa that they did not take time to consider what was happening out in the West. Perhaps they believed that Riel would not go to extremes. If so, they were mistaken.

THE METIS SET UP A PROVISIONAL GOVERNMENT

In March, 1885, the storm burst. The Métis were bitterly disappointed and very angry when they realized that their petition had been ignored. They formed a provisional government with headquarters at Batoche. Riel was chosen president of this government, and Gabriel Dumont, a famous buffalo hunter, was made commander of their fighting forces. Riel sent runners to the Indian tribes, calling upon them to join the Métis to drive the white men out of the West. This was rebellion.

On March 26th a detachment of Mounted Police from Fort Carlton, accompanied by some volunteers from Prince Albert, were on their way to Duck Lake to get supplies of ammunition. Suddenly they were attacked by Dumont's men. Twelve of the party were killed and twelve wounded. The rest gave up Fort Carlton and went to Prince Albert. The rebels had won the first round.

INDIANS ON THE WAR-PATH

The news soon spread through the Indian tribes that the Mounted Police had been defeated. Some of the Indians decided that this was their opportunity to drive the invaders out of the Indian hunting-grounds.

A band of Crees was camping near the little settlement of Frog Lake. Their chief, Big Bear, did not want to make war but in his tribe there was a reckless brave, named Wandering Spirit, who longed to drive all the white men off the plains. Led by Wandering Spirit, the Crees attacked Frog Lake, where they killed nine men and took the rest of the settlers captive. Another band of Crees under Chief Poundmaker went on the war-path in the Battleford area and terrified all the white settlers in the district.

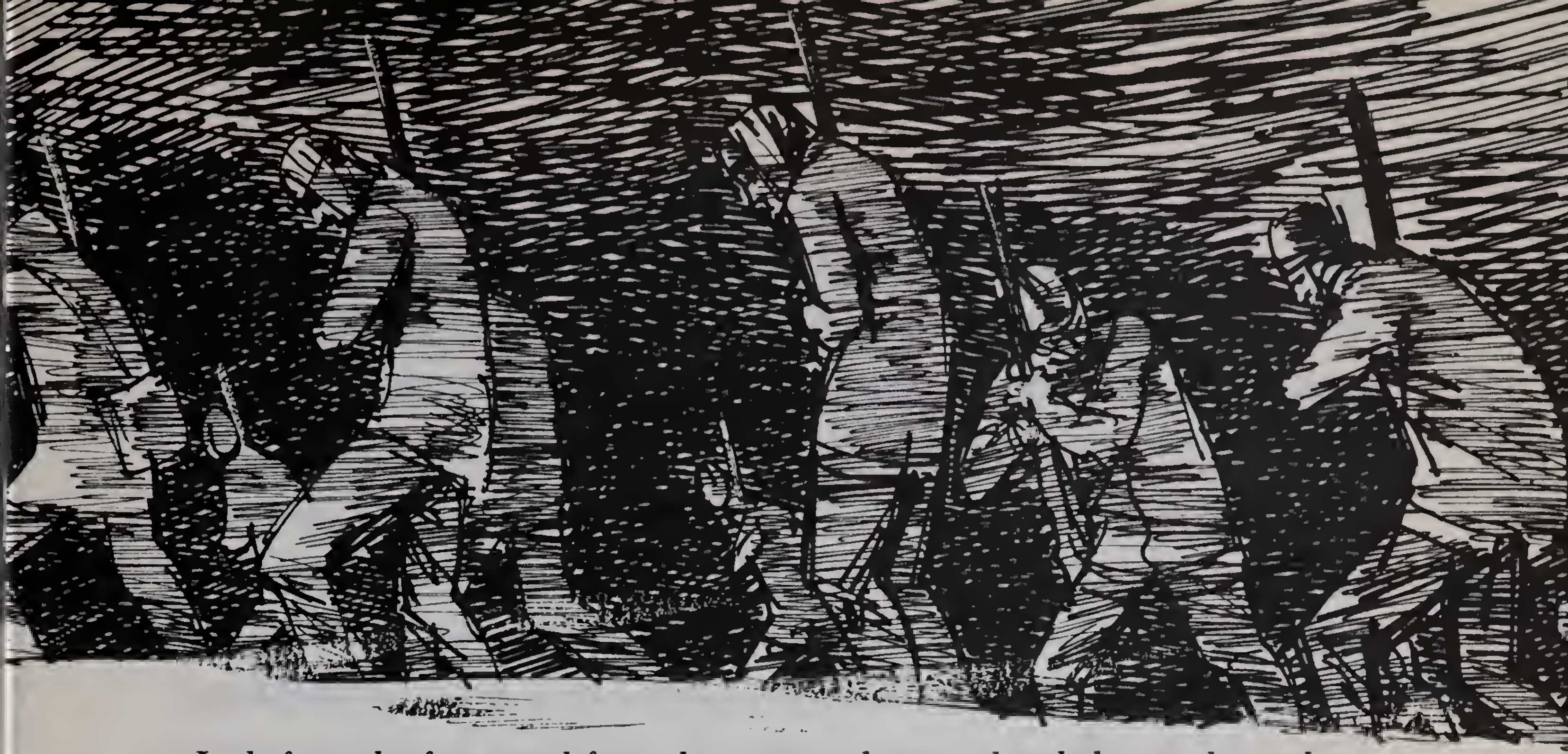
When the news of Frog Lake, Duck Lake, and Poundmaker on the war-path flashed over the new telegraph wires to Ottawa, the government realized how very serious the situation was. The rising of the Métis was alarming enough, but news that Indians were on the war-path in the

West filled the whole country with fear. Everyone knew that a small handful of North West Mounted Police could not cope with the Indian tribes if once they were aroused to war. So far the people of Canada had had, in contrast with the Americans, very little trouble with the Indians, but Canadians knew about the horrors of Indian warfare, the scalping, the massacres, the torturing of captives.

AT LAST THE GOVERNMENT PAYS ATTENTION TO THE WEST

The government had to act fast. Telegrams were sent to tell the Métis that they would be given 160 acres each. Tons of flour and bacon were sent to be distributed to the Indians on the reservation in the hope of keeping them from joining the tribes led by Poundmaker and Wandering Spirit. The call went out for volunteers to put down the rising. Three thousand enlisted in Ontario and Quebec. Two thousand more joined up in the West.

The problem was to get the soldiers from the East to the battle-ground quickly. There were still many gaps in the Canadian Pacific Railway — a hundred and twenty miles in all. Fortunately William Van Horne, general manager of the C.P.R., was an energetic and resourceful man who had had experience in moving troops during the American Civil War. He told the government that he could get men to Qu'Appelle in ten days. Orders went out to his workmen. Some of the gaps were bridged by temporary rails laid on the snow and ice. In one stretch the volunteers marched across the ice to save a long detour. At other places they were taken in contractors' sleighs from one camp to the next. Four days after they left Kingston the first troops landed in Winnipeg.



Lads from the farms and from the towns volunteered to help put down the rising. There was little time to train them for their task. The fighting was not the most difficult part of their life; it was the long marches through snow or mud, the rough camps in which they rested at night, the cold and the rain, that called for courage and endurance.

General Middleton was put in charge of the expedition. Within ten days his main force was on its way from Qu'Appelle towards Riel's headquarters at Batoche. Troops under Colonel Otter left the train at Swift Current and marched towards Battleford, and troops under General Strange set out from Calgary towards Edmonton. The Mounted Police held Battleford and Prince Albert where the white settlers had gathered to escape the horrors of Indian warfare.

The total number of Métis and Indians under Gabriel Dumont was probably never more than a thousand, but the volunteers found them formidable foes. The rebels were deadly shots and expert horsemen and they had the advantage of being in their own country. Colonel Otter, on his way to Battleford, was driven back by the Crees at Cut Knife Creek. General Middleton's advance was checked by Dumont at Fish Creek. However, when General Middleton's men succeeded in taking Batoche on

May 12, less than seven weeks after the first shot had been fired at Duck Lake, the rebellion was over. The rebels fled. Dumont escaped to the United States. Riel was taken by the Mounted Police. Poundmaker surrendered, and Big Bear and Wandering Spirit were captured.

When the news came over the telegraph that the rebellion had been put down, the whole of Canada breathed a sigh of relief. If the rebellion had spread to more of the Indian tribes, the result might have been more disastrous. Fortunately, the Indians in the North West had been well treated by the Mounted Police and by the Hudson's Bay Company. Canada now reaped the reward of this fair treatment, for the wiser chiefs had held their bands back from war.

THE FATE OF RIEL

Rebellion is treason. The punishment for treason is death. The people of Canada demanded that the ringleaders should be punished. Riel and eight other leaders, including Wandering Spirit, were condemned to death. Others were sentenced to imprisonment. Big Bear was among those sent to prison, but in a short time he was set free, because his friends showed that he had tried to keep his tribe from fighting.

When the people of Quebec heard that Riel was sentenced to death, they demanded that he should be spared. They claimed that he was insane and should not be held accountable for his acts. The people in Ontario insisted that Riel should be hanged. Sir John A. Macdonald was in a difficult position. If he had Riel executed, he would offend his supporters in Quebec. If he did not, he would offend the electors in Ontario. Three times the government gave Riel a reprieve. A commission of three doctors was sent out to examine him to find out whether he was sane or not. In the end the government decided that the law must take its course and Riel was put to death.

The rebellion on the Saskatchewan was the tragic result of the indifference and carelessness of the government. Now, at last, officials were sent out to look after the granting of title deeds and measures were taken to keep the Indians contented. But it was a long time before the bitterness over the execution of Riel died down. A happier result of the rebellion was that many of the volunteers remained in the West and took up land, while others who went back to their homes gave glowing accounts of the rich fertile land to be found in Manitoba and on the banks of the Saskatchewan.

To-day Indians, Métis, and white men live at peace side by side on the western plains. This was the last time Indians went on the war-path in Canada.

34. The Granary of the Empire

> "These are the gardens of the Desert, these
> The unshorn fields, boundless and beautiful,
> For which the speech of England has no name —
> The Prairies."
>
> William Cullen Bryant: *The Prairies*

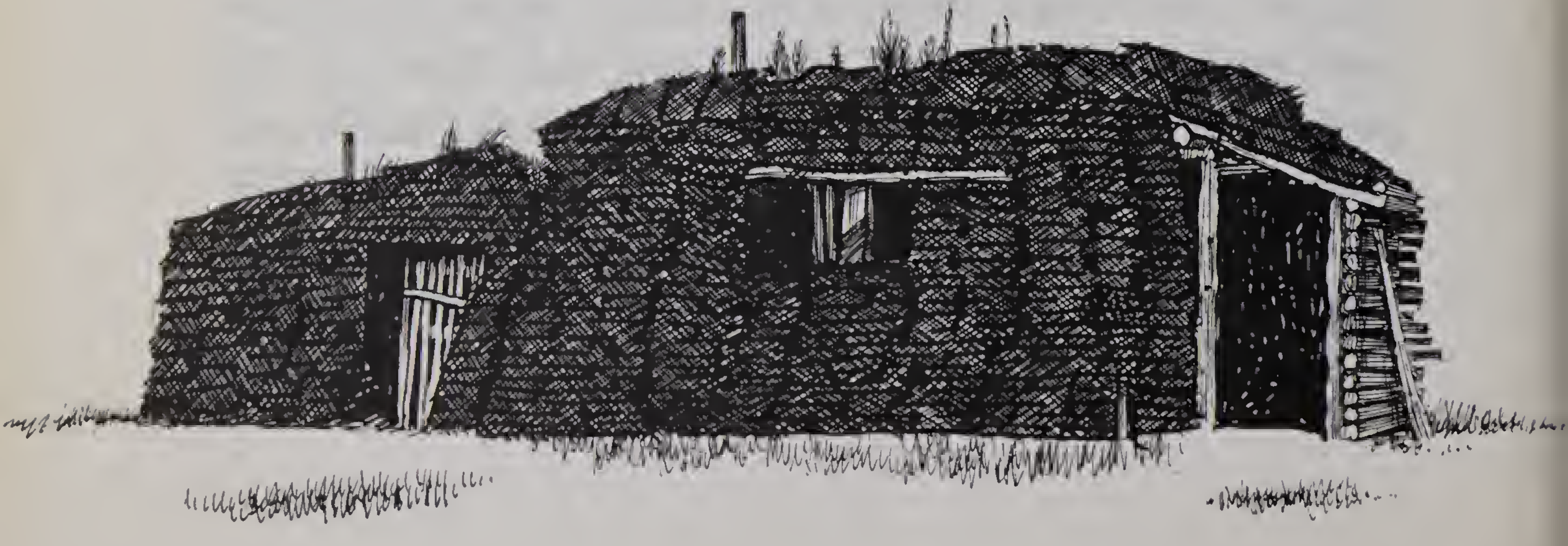
As early as 1816 Lord Selkirk had predicted that the western plains might become "the granary of the British Empire" and "might afford subsistence to more than thirty millions of British subjects". For a long time, however, the progress of the West was slow. The colony at Red River continued to exist but it did not grow. The officials of the Hudson's Bay Company even tried to persuade the outside world that the prairie land was not good for farming. In 1857, Sir George Simpson, governor of the Hudson's Bay Company, declared, "No part of the territories of the Company is well adapted for settlement. . . . The crops are uncertain, and even in the Saskatchewan valley the Company's men have not been able to grow wheat." Naturally the Company did not want settlers to come. Settlers ruin the fur trade.

SETTLERS FOLLOW THE RAILWAY

Even after Canada took over the Hudson's Bay Company's territories in 1869, the fertile stretches of the prairies waited a long time for settlers. Then came the building of the railway. Settlers followed the railway. Along the line of steel, a boom began as people from eastern Canada came out to take up the free land. A harness-maker who set up a shop in Calgary recorded in his diary as follows:

1883
May 18 – I put my name in the window, and it is the first sign in Calgary . . .
July 31 – Gave subscription and ad. to the first paper in the place . . .

Until they could afford to buy lumber for their homes, some of the settlers lived in sod houses, with walls made of piled-up strips of prairie sod and roofs made of poplar poles covered with branches and sod. If the sod was too thin or if there were no poles with which to make a roof, settlers made dugouts in the side of a slope. These homes were cold and damp in bad weather and it was a happy day for the family when Father came home with lumber for a new house.



Aug. 11 — The train crossed the Bow (river) . . .
Aug. 16 — Temporary station arrived . . .
Aug. 20 — Newspaper tent put up near the railroad . . .
Aug. 30 — First number of the Calgary Herald issued . . .
Sept. 28 — Bannerman, the postmaster, received his first mail by train . . .

1884
Jan. 7 — Attended first public meeting in Calgary at Methodist Church . . .
May 27 — Made out bill for meeting Friday night to decide upon a representative in the North-West Council . . .
Aug. 22 — Attended first meeting at Calgary Agricultural Society . . .
Nov. 10 — News of incorporation (of Calgary as a town) came . . .

These entries give us a picture of the excitement of the growth of these settlements. Within a year and a half Calgary was an organized town.

THE BOOM BREAKS

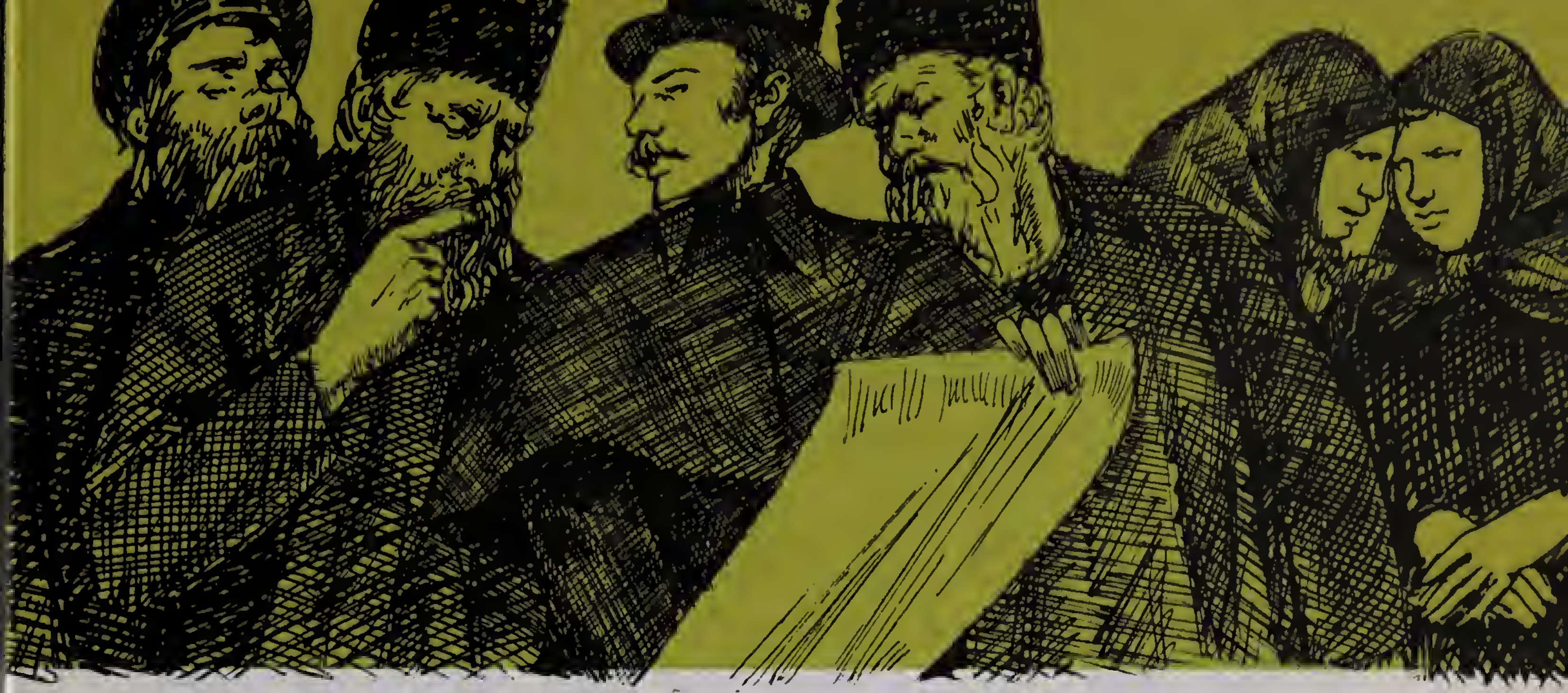
Then came the Saskatchewan Rebellion in 1885, with its dangers of an Indian uprising. The boom collapsed. Fear of Indians on the war-path kept people from coming west. Accounts of fierce blizzards and the long cold winters helped to discourage settlement. In 1890 a speaker in the House of Commons described the West as "empty still". By that time there were 152,000 people in Manitoba, and Winnipeg had grown into a city of 25,000, but it was true that in the prairie country farther west settlements were few and very small, except for Calgary, which boasted a population of 4,000.

This was the situation when the Liberals under Wilfrid Laurier came into power in 1896. Sir John A. Macdonald had died in 1891. With the exception of the five years following the Pacific Scandal, he had been Prime Minister since Confederation. But his party had been in power a long time. His successors were not able to appeal to the people as Macdonald had done, and in the election of 1896, the Liberals won by an overwhelming majority. The new Prime Minister, Wilfrid Laurier, was a scholarly lawyer of French descent from the province of Quebec. He was an eloquent speaker and a skilful party leader. During his term of office (from 1896 till 1911), Canada, and especially western Canada, made great progress.

SETTLERS POUR IN

One of the first jobs Laurier's Government undertook was to bring settlers to fill up the West. Six thousand Mennonites had already settled along the Red River in Manitoba, and a large group of Icelanders had found new homes at Gimli on Lake Winnipeg where they could work at both fishing and farming. The Mennonites were the first to farm successfully on the open treeless prairie. The Icelanders began the fishing industry on Lake Winnipeg. These newcomers were good settlers. They proved that people, knowing no English, unacquainted with Canadian laws and customs, could prosper in the new land, if they were willing and able to work.

By 1896 there was no cheap land left in eastern Canada, so hundreds of young men from Ontario went west to take up farms. So many immigrants had poured into the American west that most of the good land there had been taken up. This was western Canada's opportunity. Clifford



The government sent men far and wide to tell farmers of the opportunities in Western Canada. Often an immigrant who had prospered in Canada was sent to his old home to tell the people in their own language about the homesteads they could obtain.

Sifton, Minister of the Interior in Laurier's Cabinet, began to advertise the fertile farm lands of the Canadian West, first in Great Britain and in the United States, and then throughout the length and breadth of Europe. The Canadian Pacific Railway joined the advertising campaign, eager to sell the millions of acres it had received when it undertook to build the railway. The directors of the C.P.R. knew, too, that more settlers would mean more business for the railway. Immigration agents were sent far and wide to encourage people to come to Canada, to tell them what they would need, and what life would be like in the new land. These agents painted glowing pictures of the opportunities that awaited pioneers on the prairies.

The prospects were tempting. For a $10 fee a man could take up a homestead. Each homesteader was granted 160 acres of land, on condition that he build a house on it, live on it six months of the year, break thirty acres a year, and put twenty acres under crop. If he fulfilled these conditions, the land was his at the end of three years.

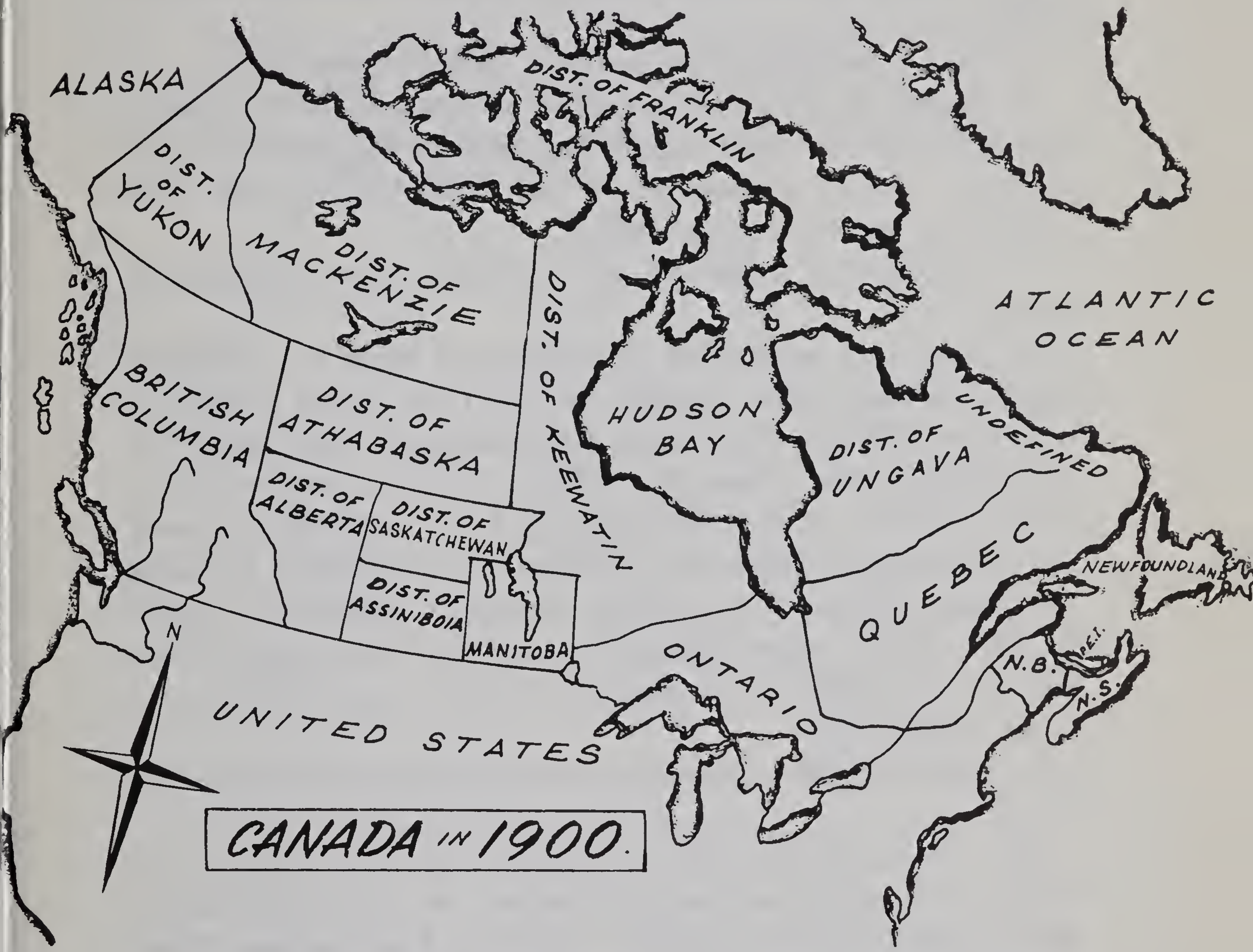
Newcomers who had enough money could buy C.P.R. land close to the railway line for comparatively small sums. The directors of the company realized that it would be more profitable to encourage settlement which would increase the railway's revenues than it would be to hold the land for a high price.

Settlers poured in. They came from eastern Canada, from Great Britain, and from the United States. They came from Russia, Poland, and the Ukraine, from Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Holland, from Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Iceland. There was land for all who wanted it, and for people from Europe that meant a great deal. Few of them had been able to own land in the countries from which they came. For those who did not want to farm, there was work to be found, since the towns and cities of the West were growing fast, and jobs were plentiful.

The people who came from eastern Canada or from the United States soon made themselves at home. Those from the British Isles learned in a few years how to get along on their prairie farms. But for the people from Europe it was much more difficult. They had had to give up their citizenship in their own country and become citizens in a strange land, where the language, laws, and customs were different from those they had known. In many places groups of settlers of one nationality settled in a district. It was a comfort to them in their first days in this country to be with people who spoke their language and understood their background, but they would have become Canadian more quickly if they had associated with English-speaking Canadians from the first.

TWO NEW PROVINCES

New towns sprang up like mushrooms. So quickly did the West fill up that it was not long before the settlers were demanding the right to have a Legislative Assembly to pass laws and look after the affairs of the people who lived there. In 1905, two new provinces, Alberta and Saskatchewan, were carved out of the North West Territories. Regina, which had been the headquarters for the administration of the North West Territories, became the capital of Saskatchewan. Edmonton became the capital of Alberta.


ALASKA
DIST. OF YUKON
DIST. OF MACKENZIE
DIST. OF FRANKLIN
DIST. OF KEEWATIN
BRITISH COLUMBIA
DIST. OF ATHABASKA
DIST. OF ALBERTA
DIST. OF SASKATCHEWAN
DIST. OF ASSINIBOIA
MANITOBA
HUDSON BAY
DIST. OF UNGAVA
UNDEFINED
ATLANTIC OCEAN
QUEBEC
NEWFOUNDLAND
ONTARIO
N.B.
P.E.I.
N.S.
UNITED STATES
N
CANADA IN 1900.

For Further Study

1. What made the people of Prince Edward Island change their minds about joining Canada?

2. Present a scene in which a leading citizen of British Columbia discusses the possibilities of entering Confederation.

3. There was very real danger that Nova Scotia, influenced by Joseph Howe, might withdraw from the Dominion of Canada. How was Howe persuaded to change his mind? What concessions made Nova Scotia willing to remain in the Dominion?

4. What rights did the Hudson's Bay Company give up in 1869?

5. Riel — patriot or rebel or both? What do you think?

6. Draw up a list of questions you would like to ask a member of the R.C.M.P. about the work of the Force in your province. Invite a member of the R.C.M.P. to visit your school and answer your questions.

7. "The C.P.R. made Canada a nation." Discuss this statement.

8. Two very interesting men helped to build the Canadian Pacific Railway. One member of the class might prepare a report on William Van Horne. His biography, *Life and Work of Sir William Van Horne*, by William Vaughan may be in your public library. It is interesting and not difficult to read. Another member might give a report on Sir Sandford Fleming. Lawrence Burpee has written *Sandford Fleming — Empire Builder*. This is more difficult to read than the book on Van Horne but it tells an interesting story of a man with a very lively imagination.

9. Make a mural presenting the story of the building of the C.P.R.

10. On a map of western Canada, mark the route of the C.P.R., the north and south branches of the Saskatchewan River, and the following places: Batoche, Fort Carlton, Prince Albert, Regina, Edmonton, North Battleford, Fort Pitt, Frog Lake, Duck Lake, and Cut Knife Creek. Put crossed swords to mark the places where fighting took place. Mark in the

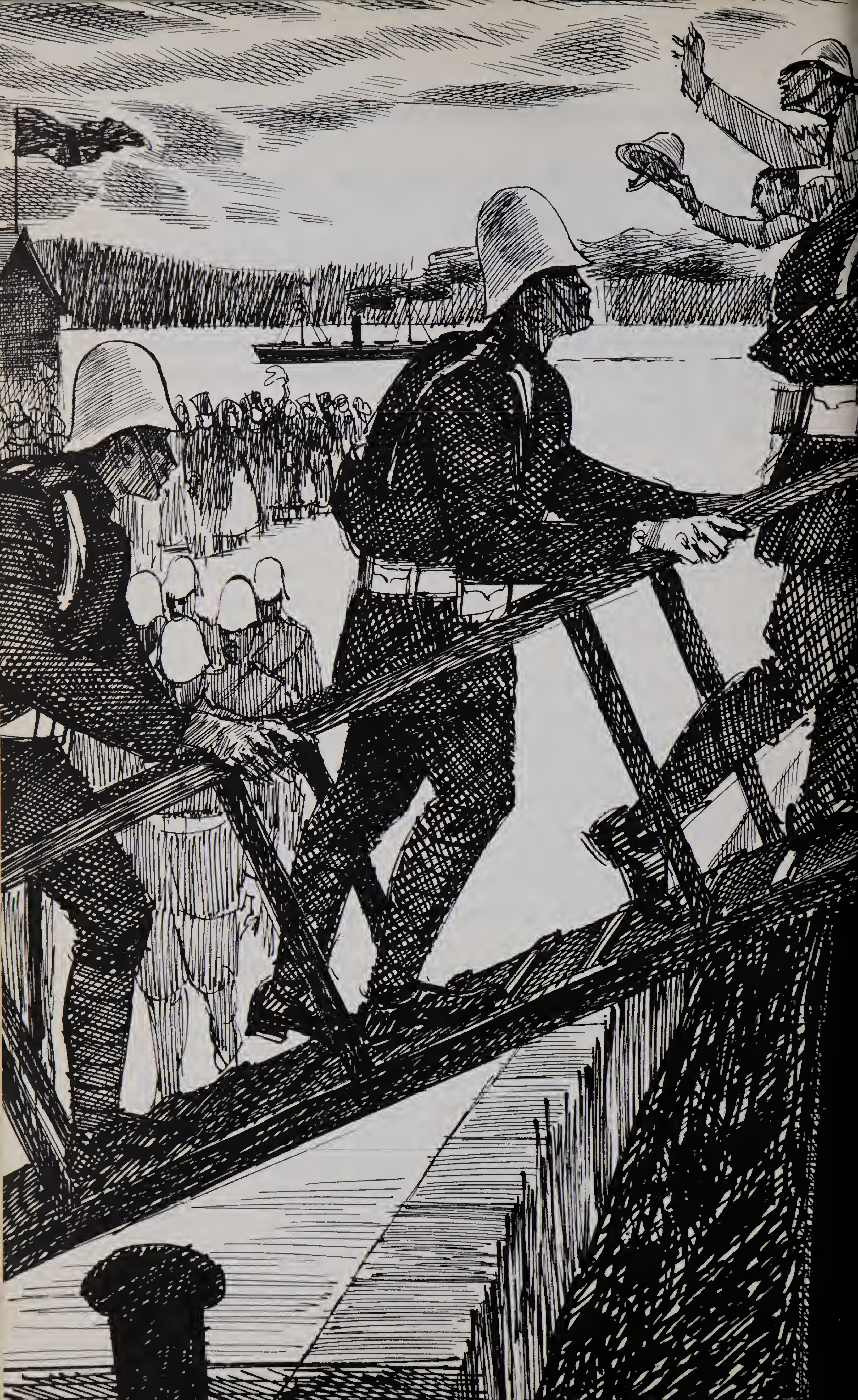
routes followed by General Middleton, Colonel Otter, and General Strange.

11. Prepare a talk that might have been given by a volunteer in General Middleton's forces when he returned to his home in an Ontario village.

12. Present a scene showing a European family discussing emigration to Canada.

13. A ten-cent stamp was issued in 1935 recognizing the importance of the R.C.M.P. Can you find one? There is also a 1943 $1.00 stamp with a picture of a train ferry to Prince Edward Island.

14. Add a train ferry to your *Book of Ships.*



VIII. *Two Growing Nations Side by Side*

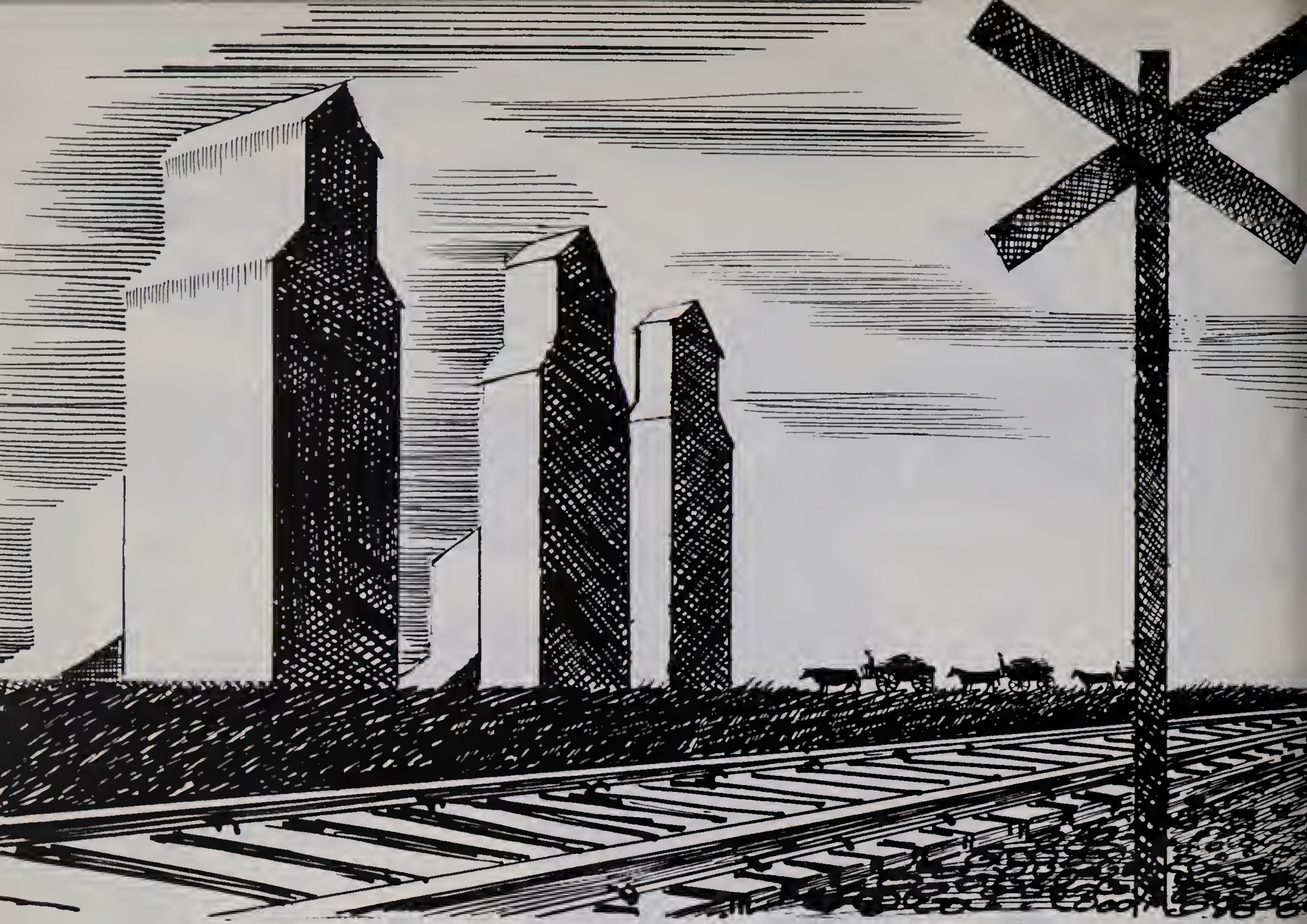
35. Canada Grows and Prospers

> "Hear ye not the hum
> Of mighty workings?"
>
> JOHN KEATS: *Sonnet*

PROSPERITY

When the Liberals under Sir Wilfrid Laurier came into power in 1896 they were very lucky because a period of hard times was ending and prosperity was returning. The price of wheat was high in Europe and the fertile soil of the prairies was producing bumper crops. Farmers from Eastern Canada and the United States, and immigrants from the British Isles and from Europe were pouring into Canada to take up land in the West.

Before long the wheat harvest was so great that the railway could not handle it all. The C.P.R. was building branch lines but it could not keep up with the flood of golden grain. In 1895 two railway contractors, William Mackenzie and Donald Mann, began buying and building railways to carry wheat to the head of the Great Lakes. The government gave them generous grants of land to help them to build the line which later became known as the Canadian Northern Railway. So great was the enthusiasm for new railways that the government made an agreement with the Grand Trunk Railway to extend its



Soon the prairie scene changed. Tall grain elevators stood like sentinels beside the railway tracks and after the harvest long lines of grain wagons carried the golden grain to the elevators. Canada soon became the fourth greatest grain-producing country in the world, surpassed only by the United States, the Soviet Union, and China.

line to the Pacific Coast. The new railways were rushed through to handle the heavy passenger and freight traffic that was developing. When these lines were first built they were a great boon to Canada. Wheat moved quickly to the head of the Lakes and to the seaports. Farm machinery, stoves, household furniture, and clothing from Eastern Canada filled up the freight cars on their return trips. The wheat from the West was bringing prosperity to the whole country.

Construction gangs were pushing new lines into the West, towns and cities were springing up, and there was work for all. There seemed to be no limit to the mushroom growth of the West. Every city was certain it would become a second Chicago; every village expected to become a large city.

Valuable copper deposits were found in the Sudbury district when the Canadian Pacific Railway line was being built. When the chemist was analysing the ore he found a metal he had never seen before. It turned out to be nickel, a very useful metal little known until that time. The Sudbury nickel deposits soon made Canada the world's leading producer of this valuable metal.

Silver, lead, and zinc were attracting miners to the Kootenay district in eastern British Columbia, while on the west coast lumbering, fishing, and trade with the Orient was bringing wealth to the settlements there.

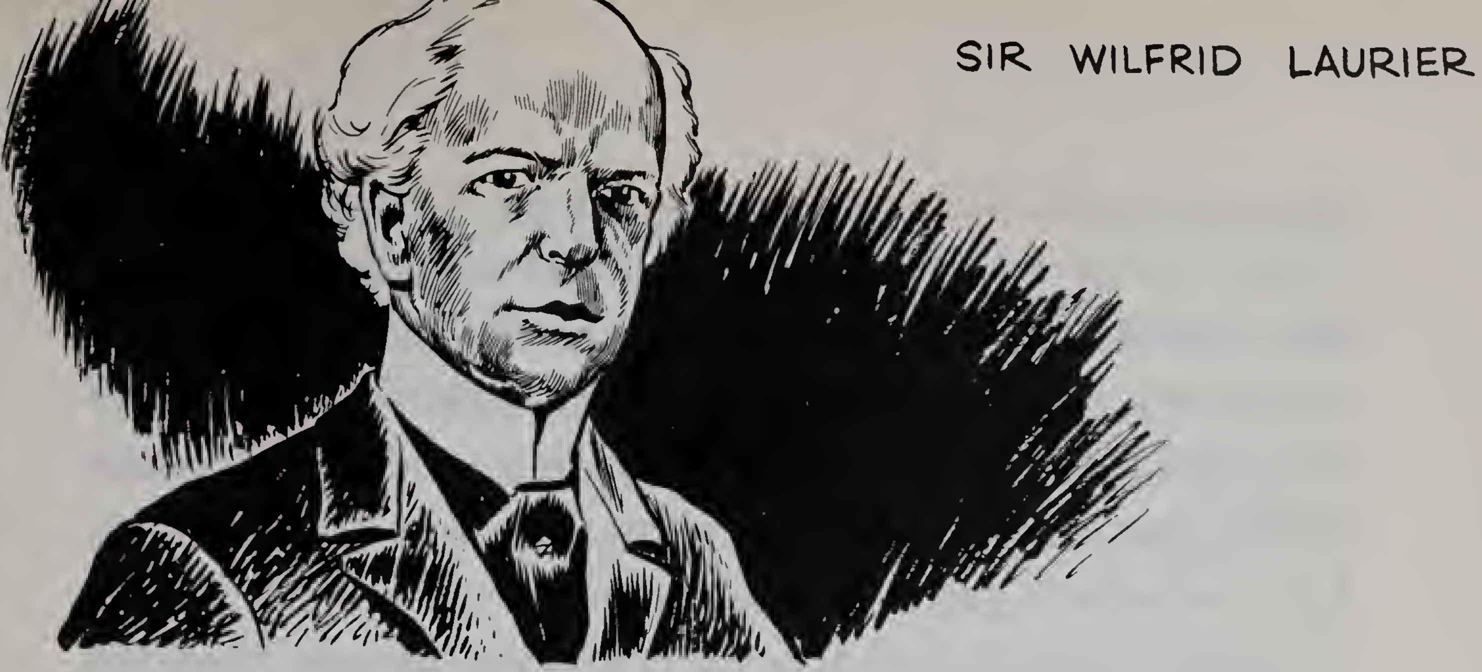
THE NEW PRIME MINISTER AT THE IMPERIAL CONFERENCE

In 1897 people from all over the world went to England to celebrate Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee. She had been Queen of Great Britain and Ireland and of the British Dominions beyond the seas for sixty years. Representatives went from Canada and Newfoundland, from Australia and New Zealand, from every part of the British Empire to honour the Queen. They also took advantage of the opportunity to tell everyone who would listen about the advantages their countries had to offer. A great Canadian arch proudly bore the inscription "Homes for Millions".

Wilfrid Laurier, the new Prime Minister, headed the Canadian delegation. He was a representative of whom Canada could well be proud. It was not only his distinguished appearance, his courtly manners, his scholarship, and his eloquence which appealed to the imagination of all who saw him; it was the fact that he, a Canadian of French descent, should represent the greatest of Britain's overseas dominions. He brought a new point of view about the relations between the Mother Country and the self-governing dominions. In his speeches he constantly referred to Canada as “a nation”, and at the same time he always made it clear that Canada was loyal to the British Crown. Representatives from other parts of the Empire listened to him carefully, for he seemed to symbolize a new conception of the term “empire”, a partnership of equals within a united empire.

At this time there was a wave of feeling in Great Britain, in Canada, and in some of the other colonies in favour of a closer union between the Mother Country and the overseas dominions. There were some who wanted commercial union — no duties on goods going from one part of the Empire to another. There were some who thought that each colony should send representatives to an Imperial Parliament in England which would make laws for the whole Empire.

At first Laurier’s imagination was captured by this proposal of an Imperial Parliament. “It would be the proudest moment of my life,” he said, “if I could see a Canadian of French descent affirming the principles of freedom in the parliament of Great Britain.” But when he came to discuss seriously the relations between Canada and the Mother Country, he saw the disadvantages of the plan. He realized that Canada and the other dominions had struggled for a long time to win the right to govern themselves and that it would not be wise to surrender any part of their power to decide for themselves what they thought was best for their own countries. The British Empire must be, he maintained, “a galaxy of free nations”, bound together by a common allegiance to the Crown, but each enjoying the fullest right to manage its own affairs. The representatives of the other dominions followed his lead. The proposals for a commercial union, and for an Imperial Parliament, were turned down.



Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the first Prime Minister of French descent, was an eloquent speaker in both French and English. When Laurier was still a back-bencher in the House of Commons, a parliamentary reporter noticed that whenever the speeches became dull Laurier read a little book. The reporter determined to find out what book the young member was reading with such interest. It was a dictionary!

In his poem, "Our Lady of the Snows", Rudyard Kipling stated the position of the overseas dominions:

> "Daughter am I in my mother's house,
> But mistress in my own."

THE BOER WAR

The first test of Laurier's view of Canada's place in the British Empire came when war broke out in South Africa in 1899. Canada had no immediate concern with this war, but many Canadians thought that Canada should spring at once to the help of the Mother Country. Laurier did not agree. "If England is at war," he declared, "we are at war and liable to attack. I do not say that we shall always be attacked, neither do I say that we would take part in all the wars of England. That is a matter that must be determined by circumstances, upon which the Canadian Parliament will have to pronounce." When Parliament met, it authorized, with Laurier's approval, sending three contingents of troops to assist the British forces.

A call went out for volunteers and soon Canadian soldiers, marching to the tune of "The Soldiers of the Queen", set out for the ships which would carry them to South Africa. Lord Strathcona (formerly Donald Smith, one of the builders of the Canadian Pacific Railway) equipped at his own expense a regiment which proudly called itself the Strathcona Horse. The Canadian soldiers, by their skilled marksmanship and their bravery, won great renown for themselves and for their country.

Laurier's point was made. Canadian troops were not sent to the scene of battle until the Canadian Parliament voted to send them. This was an important step towards self-government for Canada.

Until the Boer War British troops had been stationed in Canada to defend the country if the need arose. Now they were withdrawn, and the fortifications at Halifax and Esquimalt were handed over to the Canadian militia. Shortly after this, another important advance was made in Canada's steady progress towards becoming an independent nation within the British Commonwealth. Henceforth the Canadian militia was commanded, not by a British officer as had been the custom, but by a Canadian general.

THE KLONDIKE GOLD RUSH

The rush of immigrants, the opening of the prairies, the fever of railroad construction, the discovery of minerals in Kootenay all created excitement, but it was the discovery of gold in the Yukon that fanned excitement almost to madness.

Placer miners were in Alaska washing the gravel of the streams for gold as early as the 1870's. They made a living but no fortune. They knew, however, that if there was gold in the streams, there probably was more gold higher up. For many years prospectors sought the mother lode, the source of the gold which was washed down into the creeks and rivers.

One day in 1896 George Washington Carmack and two Indians tried washing a pan of gravel from Bonanza Creek where it flowed into the Klondike River. If a pan yielded gold to the value of ten cents it was worth working the gravel. Carmack's first pan gave him about $4.00 worth. He and his companions staked claims and when the news of his discovery became known the stampede to the Klondike began. It was the California story all over again, but this time in an unfriendly land, a land of snow and ice and bitter winters, of high mountains and rushing streams, a land to which supplies were brought with great difficulty and at great expense.

As soon as news of the discovery on Bonanza Creek became known, a trader named Joseph Ladue moved his post and sawmill to the junction of the Klondike and the Yukon, and there founded a settlement which he named Dawson City. North West Mounted Police went to Dawson to maintain law and order. In two years Dawson grew to a city of over 20,000, a city of shacks and tents, of dance halls and saloons, where the cheapest single room rented for a hundred dollars a month, where an egg or a loaf of bread sold for a dollar, milk for four dollars a quart, and people offered a dollar and a half for an onion and five dollars for a pound of tomatoes.

Miners from all over the world flocked to the Klondike. Men who knew nothing about mining and nothing about life in the cold north left their jobs and joined the stampede for gold. They had no idea what dreadful hardships they would have to face before they could reach the gold-fields. Some tried to go north through the interior of British Columbia from Ashcroft to the Stikine River, while others went up the Stikine. Over two thousand set out from

Edmonton, which was advertised as "the back door to the Yukon". This was the longest and most impracticable of all the routes to the gold-fields, and few of those who set out from Edmonton ever reached the Klondike. It took experienced North West Mounted Police fourteen months to reach the Yukon River from Edmonton, and the men who knew nothing of travel in the north had little chance of making the journey successfully. Hundreds turned back; hundreds died on the way from scurvy or from hunger or cold.

Ships from Seattle and Vancouver brought eager gold-seekers to the mouth of the Yukon and some ships went up the Yukon to Dawson City. It was a long journey and few reached Dawson City in time to set out for the gold-fields before winter set in. Thousands made their way from Skagway through the White Pass to Lake Bennett, but the quickest route was from Dyea through the Chilkoot Pass.

THE TRAIL OF '98

About thirty thousand stampeders made their way to the Klondike through the hazardous Chilkoot Pass which became known as "the trail of '98". From Dyea, now a ghost town, they went six miles by wagon road, then four and a half miles through a rocky canyon to Sheep Camp. From Sheep Camp they began the heart-breaking climb to the summit. It was only two and a half miles but it was like climbing a wall, for the summit was 3,500 feet above Dyea.

For eight months of the year the trail was covered with ice. Almost seventy feet of snow fell the first winter of the gold rush. In summer avalanches thundered down the mountains, sometimes burying whole parties beneath tons of snow. In some places steps were cut in the ice and all day long a single file of gold-seekers, carrying heavy loads on their backs, toiled to the summit. Men with cash to spare paid Indians to carry their supplies and equipment; those without cash might make as many as forty trips to bring their freight to the summit. It took the average man three months to take his supplies up to the pass, where he left it marked with a long stick or a long-handled shovel so that he could find it when he returned with the next load. Sometimes the snow was so deep he could not find his possessions and had to wait until some of the snow disappeared before he could discover where he had left his last load. But it did not take him long to go back to Sheep Camp for his next load. He just sat down and slid down the steep slope in a few minutes.

Few of the gold-seekers were experienced mountain climbers; few of them knew how to withstand the cold of the Arctic country. They endured great hardships, cold, lack of shelter, swarms of mosquitoes, poor food, and the backbreaking toil of carrying their supplies. No one carried anything over the pass that he could possibly do without. All along the trail lay abandoned possessions which the owners had to throw away to lighten their packs.

No one stayed at the summit except a small force of North West Mounted Police. Sometimes the blizzards which raged through the pass forced even the Mounties to take shelter part way down the slope. When the gold-seekers reached the summit and saw the Union Jack waving and the Mounties on duty they realized they were crossing into Canadian territory.

As soon as the weary travellers reached Lake Lindemann or Lake Bennett, they built boats or rafts and rowed over five hundred miles down the lakes and the swift rivers to Dawson. From Dawson they made their way up the Klondike or up Bonanza Creek, the richest placer creek in the world. In ten years $125,000,000 worth of gold was taken out of the Klondike.

Here and there in the lonely north travellers to-day may come upon a tumble-down cabin or a crude grave-marker on the old Klondike route. Only a few of the many thousands who joined the mad stampede for gold found it, but they opened up the far northwest. Few of the stampeders are alive to-day but their stories of their struggle added to our knowledge of one of the most inhospitable parts of our country.

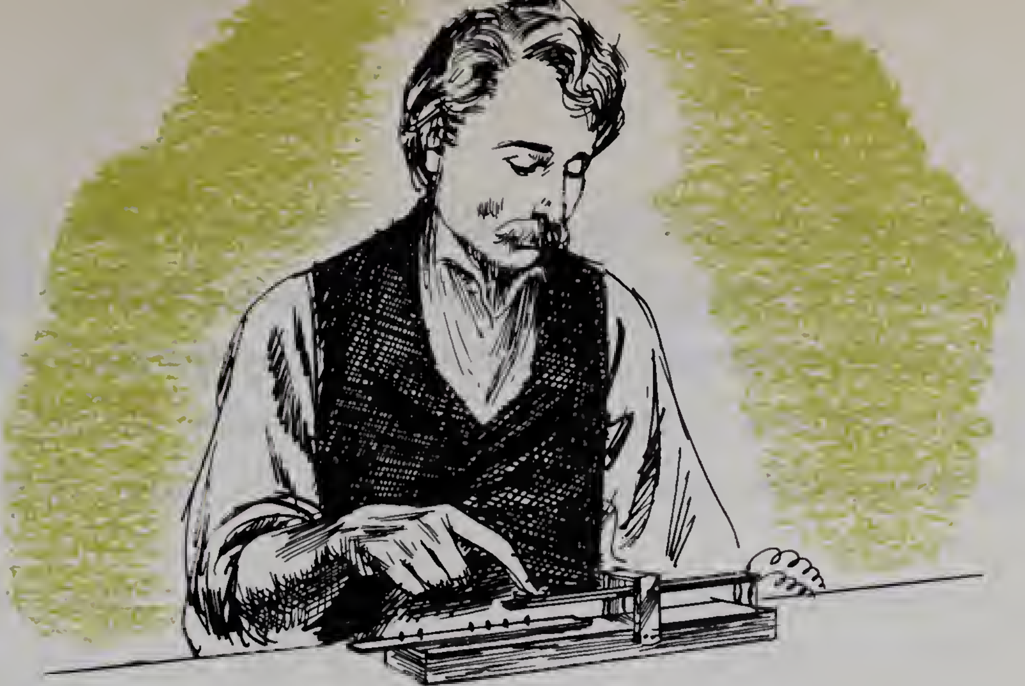
36. The Young United States Becomes a Giant

> "I speak of new cities and new people.
> I tell you the past is a bucket of ashes.
> I tell you yesterday is a wind gone down, a sun dropped in the west."
>
> Carl Sandburg: *The Prairie*

The period following the Civil War was one of great growth and change. This was happening everywhere in the civilized world but nowhere more rapidly than in the United States. Immigrants flocked to the New World with high hopes for a better life. New cities and towns grew up at an amazing rate. Hundreds of inventions made industry more efficient and life more comfortable.

INVENTIONS SPEED UP COMMUNICATION

A clever inventor, Samuel Morse, became convinced that he could make a machine to carry messages by electricity. For five years he experimented and at last he had made a machine with which he could send messages a short distance. He did not have enough money to put up poles and



Samuel Morse studied art in London and Paris and became a teacher of art at New York University. When he was forty he set out to prove that messages could be sent by wire, and five years later he invented the telegraph.

buy wire to build a long line but in 1843 Congress provided $30,000 to build a telegraph line from Washington to Baltimore, a distance of forty miles. The following year the first message, "What Hath God Wrought?" was tapped over the wire and by 1860 the magic wire had crossed the continent.

As soon as the telegraph proved successful, inventors began to work on the problem of sending messages under the sea by wire. In 1850 a cable was laid from England to France. A transatlantic cable was a more ambitious venture but Cyrus Field was determined to establish one. In 1866, after thirteen years of struggle and four failures, the first successful transatlantic cable carried messages from Ireland to Newfoundland.

In 1876 Alexander Graham Bell, who came from Scotland to Canada and later went to the United States, invented the telephone. Before long a network of telegraph and telephone lines spanned the continent. The telegraph, the cable, and the telephone made it possible for important news to be sent over great distances more rapidly than ever before. Now newspapers could obtain world news within a few hours after the events had taken place. This does not seem remarkable to us, for we are accustomed to hearing news over the radio within minutes after it happens, and to seeing on television great events like the opening of Parliament or the official opening of the St. Lawrence Seaway while they are actually taking place. But imagine what it meant to people in those days!

BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY

After the Civil War business and industry developed very rapidly in the northern states. Railways were being built and locomotives and cars manufactured. New factories were put up and old ones enlarged. The rapidly growing population provided an increasing demand for manufactured goods at home, and ships from the eastern seaboard carried American manufactured goods all over the world.

STEEL

The new factories needed iron and steel. An American, William Kelly, and an Englishman, Henry Bessemer, both worked out cheaper and better ways of converting iron into steel. To make a ton of steel several tons of coal are needed. Fortunately, the United States had plenty of coal in the Allegheny Mountains and rich deposits of iron in Pennsylvania and West Virginia. Soon a great steel industry developed with its first centre in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

Later huge deposits of iron were found in the Mesabi Range west of Lake Superior, where the iron is so close to the surface that it can be mined at low cost. Big steam shovels scoop up the iron and load it into freight cars which take it to the lake ports to be loaded into the ore boats that carry it to the steel mills of Chicago, Buffalo, Detroit, and Cleveland. Nowhere else in the world can iron be mined so easily or delivered to the steel mills so cheaply. So much ore has been taken out that the mines of the Mesabi Range will soon be exhausted. Recently very rich deposits of iron ore have been discovered in Labrador.

ANDREW CARNEGIE

Of the many fortunes made in the steel industry Andrew Carnegie's was the greatest. The Carnegie family came from Scotland to Pittsburgh in 1848 and there at the age of thirteen young Andrew became a bobbin boy in a cotton mill. His pay was twenty cents a day. He was not satisfied with this low wage, so he took a job as messenger for a telegraph company and there he learned to send and receive messages. He rose rapidly in the service of the railroad company and became interested in its policy of replacing wooden bridges by iron ones. This led him into the steel industry, where he prospered so greatly that in 1901 he was able to sell his steel company for $500,000,000.

Andrew Carnegie had many ideas which were not common in his time. He believed that "surplus wealth is a sacred trust to be administered for the highest good of the people", and even predicted that some day "the man who dies possessed of millions free and ready to be distributed will die disgraced". Because he also believed that merely giving people money does not help them, many of his gifts were planned to help people help themselves. For example, his money provided for building almost 3,000 libraries but every community which accepted his gift had to undertake to maintain its library. He established the Carnegie Foundation for International Peace, the Carnegie Hero Fund, and the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, and built Carnegie Hall, the famous concert hall in New York City. Before Andrew Carnegie died in 1919 he had given away all of his huge fortune except $25,000,000.

OIL

For centuries men had known about petroleum. In its solid form, asphalt, it was used as mortar for the building of the Tower of Babel and Solomon's Temple. In its liquid form it was used in Italy as early as 1803 for street lighting. The Indians had used it as medicine. "Indian Oil", "Petroleum Rock Oil", "Snake Oil", "American Medical Oil", and "Seneca Oil" were popular medicines in the 1850's in the United States, and prescribed for almost any ailment from rheumatism to tuberculosis. It must have had a very unpleasant taste, but many people accepted that because they believed that the worse the medicine tasted the more good it would do.

There was, however, more oil in Pennsylvania than could be used up in medicine. People began to experiment in refining the petroleum to produce oil for lamps and to make better lamps in which to burn the oil. Lighting had always been a difficult problem. Beeswax and tallow candles had been used, also lamps in which such animal fats as whale oil were burned. Coal oil had been distilled from coal. But the oil from petroleum proved less expensive and more satisfactory. A company was formed to try to get oil by drilling for it and in 1857 Edwin Drake was sent to Titusville, Pennsylvania, to superintend the venture. Most people thought it was a ridiculous project and called it Drake's Folly, but, in 1859, after drilling 69½ feet, he struck oil. Immediately a great oil rush began in the United States and hundreds of oil wells were drilled.

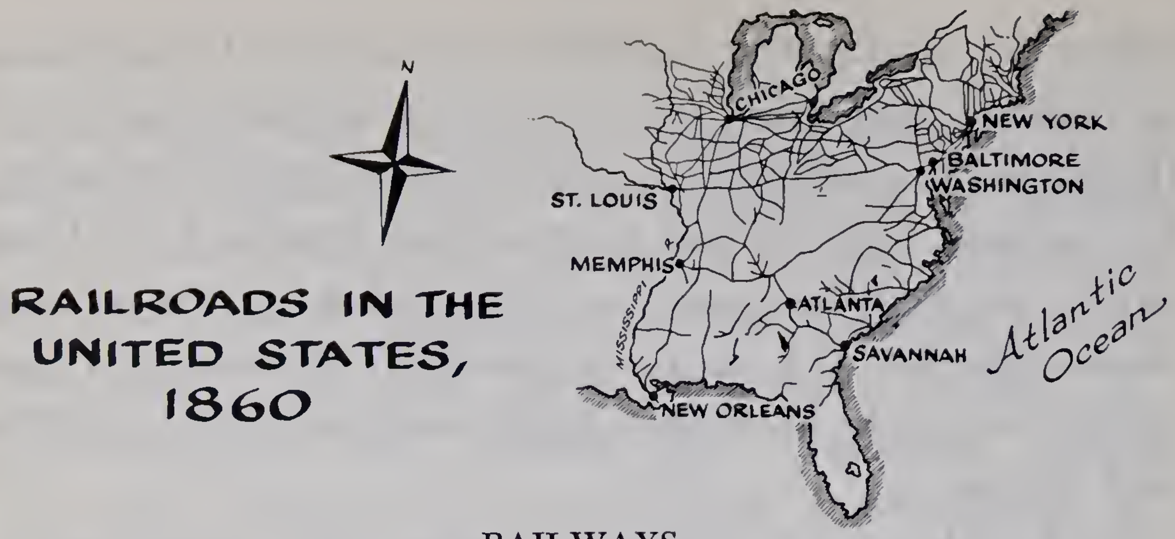
JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER

The most famous figure in the history of oil is not Edwin Drake who drilled the world's first oil well but John D. Rockefeller who organized a company to refine and sell it.

When Rockefeller first visited the oil wells of Pennsylvania he decided that there was money to be made out of oil. He started a small refinery and borrowed money to extend his business until he had built up the Standard Oil Company. In order to create a new market for its product, Rockefeller had the company give away thousands of glass lamps to people in distant lands, such as China, Arabia, and Egypt.

Rockefeller was a ruthless business man. The Standard Oil Company bought out its competitors or forced them out of business until it controlled about 90% of the oil-refining in the country. Clever lawyers made the company into a trust, that is, into an organization controlling the policies and prices charged by all the smaller companies it had taken over. The Standard Oil Trust became so unpopular that it aroused a great deal of criticism. People resented the existence of a monopoly which could charge high prices for its products and make one man as rich as Rockefeller became. In 1890 Congress passed an act which forbade "combinations in restraint of trade", which means it would not allow any company to become a monopoly. The trust was forced to dissolve in 1892, but shrewd lawyers found ways of evading the law. The Standard Oil Company continued to make huge profits and John D. Rockefeller became a billionaire.

In 1900 Rockefeller retired from business and, like Andrew Carnegie, began to give some of his huge fortune to establish projects for the good of humanity. He gave large sums to universities and over $100,000,000 to establish the Rockefeller Foundation which provides funds for medical research and education. Altogether he is believed to have given away over $500,000,000 yet he still left enough to his family so that his grandsons are multi-millionaires.


RAILROADS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1860
N
CHICAGO
NEW YORK
BALTIMORE
WASHINGTON
ST. LOUIS
MEMPHIS
MISSISSIPPI
ATLANTA
SAVANNAH
NEW ORLEANS
Atlantic Ocean

RAILWAYS

The Americans were quick to realize the value of railways and by 1840 had more miles of track than any other country in the world. Most of the railway lines were in the east where the population was greatest but in the 1850's many lines began to stretch out towards the west. In 1869 the Union Pacific from the east and the Central Pacific from California met at Ogden, Utah. There with great ceremony the last tie, made of polished California mahogany, was carefully laid, and the last spike, made of solid California gold, was driven into place with a silver-headed hammer. This was the first railway in the world to cross a continent.

Enterprising men began to buy up small railways and build them into longer lines. These railway owners were just as ruthless as the oil and steel men, often forcing competing lines out of business. Where there was competition from water transport or from other railways they charged low rates in order to attract business, but made up for this by charging very high rates where people had no other way of shipping their goods. Sometimes the railways, in order to oblige a shareholder or a man like Rockefeller who gave them a lot of business, charged unfair rates to anyone competing with these favoured few. Many of the railway men piled up huge fortunes and the public began to believe that the railways were cheating them.

In big business it was every man for himself and little concern for others. Employers paid their workers very low wages and took no responsibility for the welfare of the men who worked for them. They maintained that it was good business to force their competitors out of business, to establish monopolies, and to charge as much as they could get for their products. The success of the Standard Oil Trust encouraged other men to form trusts, such as the Cottonseed Oil Trust, the Sugar Trust, the Whisky Trust, and the Leather Trust. The men who formed these trusts were clever business men and probably would have made money under any circumstances. But there can be no doubt that it was the high prices their monopolies forced the public to pay that built up their enormous fortunes.

The public became very critical of a system which made it possible for a few men to make enormous fortunes, which permitted companies to drive other men out of business, which allowed the employers to pay starvation wages to their workers. Although the Americans by tradition had a great respect for the freedom of the individual to manage his own business, many people became convinced that the government should do something about the situation. Several states passed laws against trusts and in 1890 Congress passed a law which it hoped would put an end to these monopolies. Some trusts were forced to dissolve but it did not take the business men long to find ways of evading the laws. Since that time Congress has passed many stricter laws to regulate business.

UNIONS TO PROTECT THE WORKERS

Attempts were made by the workers to form organizations which would try to obtain for them better wages and better working conditions. The workers were slow to join, either because they were afraid of the consequences or because they did not believe that the unions could accomplish anything. There were some organized strikes but most of them were brutally suppressed, often with the help of Federal troops. Leaders of strikes were often "blacklisted", so that they could never get another job. The union movement had not accomplished much by 1900. It is only in this century that the unions have become effective, and even powerful.

PROSPERITY AND DEPRESSIONS

The south was not as prosperous as the north with its factories and steel mills or the west with its mines and cattle ranches. During the Civil War many of the rich planters of the south had been ruined when their homes were pillaged and their crops destroyed by the northern soldiers. Towns had been burned, wharves and docks destroyed, and railway lines torn up. It took the south a long time to recover from the war.

Even in good times in the north and west, when the factories and mills were busy, when the mines were operating, when railways were being built, and the farmers and cattlemen were receiving good prices, there were many workers living on very low wages. When the factories and mills produced more than could be sold, then they were shut down and thousands of people were out of work. Unemployment reduced the demand for farm products because people could not afford to buy as much as they had formerly, and widespread depressions followed.

The most severe depressions were in 1873 and in 1893. In the early days when factories and towns were smaller, depressions did not cause as great hardships as these later ones did. Many workmen had owned their own homes and had small gardens where they could at least raise some food for their families. Many of them when they lost their jobs could go "back home" to the family farm until times were better. But when factories began to spring up like mushrooms after the Civil War, and the steel mills kept the iron and coal mines busy, the towns became much larger and few of the workers owned their homes. Most of them lived in grimy tenements and when they lost their jobs they could not pay the rent. Their wages had been so low that they could not have saved much money even if they had tried to do so. There was no unemployment insurance in those days, no government relief for the poor. Most of the people, both in Canada and in the United States, believed that if a man really wanted work he could find it. It is only in the last thirty years that governments in either Canada or the United States have undertaken to help the unemployed until they can find work again.

THE UNITED STATES GAINS OVERSEAS POSSESSIONS

Many Americans, as we have seen, considered it the destiny of the United States to gain control of the whole North American continent but this dream was not realized. Some of them thought that they should help the people of other nations to gain the right to govern themselves, but others maintained that they should not become involved in affairs outside the continent. Just before the end of the nineteenth century the Americans acquired overseas possessions. Two events brought this about. One was the annexation of Hawaii at the request of the Americans living there, the other, the war with Spain.

It was in the Hawaiian Islands, which he called the Sandwich Islands, that Captain Cook was killed when his sailors became involved in a fight with the natives. For some years ships of many nations stopped there for water, supplies, and trade with the natives. In 1820 the King's son invited missionaries to bring Christianity to the islands and a group of New England missionaries accepted the invitation. They learned the language, put it into written form, and established schools. Twenty years after their arrival their teachings had convinced the King that he should set up a legislature elected by the people and provide for the education of the children.

Many of the children of the missionaries settled in these beautiful islands where the climate was so delightful, the soil so fertile and cheap, and labour so plentiful. Before long they controlled almost all the good land and had established prosperous sugar, pineapple, and coffee plantations. They practically controlled the government. When Queen Liliuokalani indicated that she thought Hawaii should be governed by Hawaiians, the Americans formed a Safety Committee which worked to bring about the annexation of Hawaii to the United States. Since there were many Americans who did not approve of acquiring overseas possessions, the United States did not act as quickly as the Americans in Hawaii had hoped it would. The Safety Committee deposed Queen "Lil" and declared Hawaii a republic. Finally in 1898 the United States annexed Hawaii and in 1959 it became the fiftieth state of the American Union.

THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR

In 1898 the United States became involved in war with Spain over the independence of Cuba. The Spanish rule was tyrannical and the people rose in frequent revolts. Neither the government nor the rebels could establish control. Many Americans were losing their investments in Cuba and this gave the United States an excuse for interfering. A warship, the *Maine*, which was sent to Havana to protect the Americans if it became necessary to do so, was blown up in the harbour, with great loss of life. Although a commission decided that destruction of the *Maine* was not the result of any action by the Spaniards, opinion in the United States continued to grow in favour of war. The Americans demanded that Spain withdraw from Cuba. Even though Spain agreed to all of America's demands, the Americans prepared for war. Newspapers had become a powerful force in the life of the people and some of the newspapers, rejoicing in America's great strength or wanting to stir up trouble, urged the Americans into war.

The Pacific fleet proceeded to the Philippines where, under Commodore Dewey, it defeated the Spanish fleet in Manila Bay. Troops were sent to take over the islands. The Spaniards made little further resistance but the Filipinos continued to fight against the Americans until March 1901.

The Americans defeated the Spanish fleet, took Santiago in Cuba and were proceeding to drive the Spaniards out of Puerto Rico when the war ended on August 12, less than four months after the President of the United States issued his ultimatum to Spain.

It was a very short war, with a small casualty list: only 295 Americans killed, and 1533 wounded.

THE UNITED STATES UNDERTAKES NEW RESPONSIBILITIES

The war started with the demand that Spain withdraw from Cuba but it ended with the Americans demanding Spanish territory. Cuba was occupied by American troops until 1902 when it became an independent republic. The United States acquired the Philippine Islands, Guam, and Puerto Rico. The Philippine Islands were under American control until they were made an independent republic on July 4, 1946. Guam became an American base. Puerto Rico is still American territory.

The results of the Spanish-American War are very important for they mark a change in American policy. Until this time the United States had not wanted any overseas possessions, but when the war began it became clear that many Americans wanted to show the world how powerful their nation had become. The war built up the American navy and established an adequate army. Through its control of Guam, the Philippines, and Hawaii the United States became a power in the Pacific. An editorial in the *Washington Post* just before the beginning of the war states: "A new consciousness seems to have come upon us — the consciousness of strength — and with it a new appetite, the yearning to show our strength. . . . The taste of Empire is in the mouth of the people even as the taste of blood is in the jungle."

There were, however, still many Americans who did not favour acquiring any more possessions. They feared that their country might try to build up a great empire just as the European nations had done. They remembered their War of Independence with pride and they wanted neither to be ruled by any other nation or to rule over any other people. They believed, too, that the United States would be safer and stronger if it kept out of world affairs.

THE UNITED STATES IN 1900

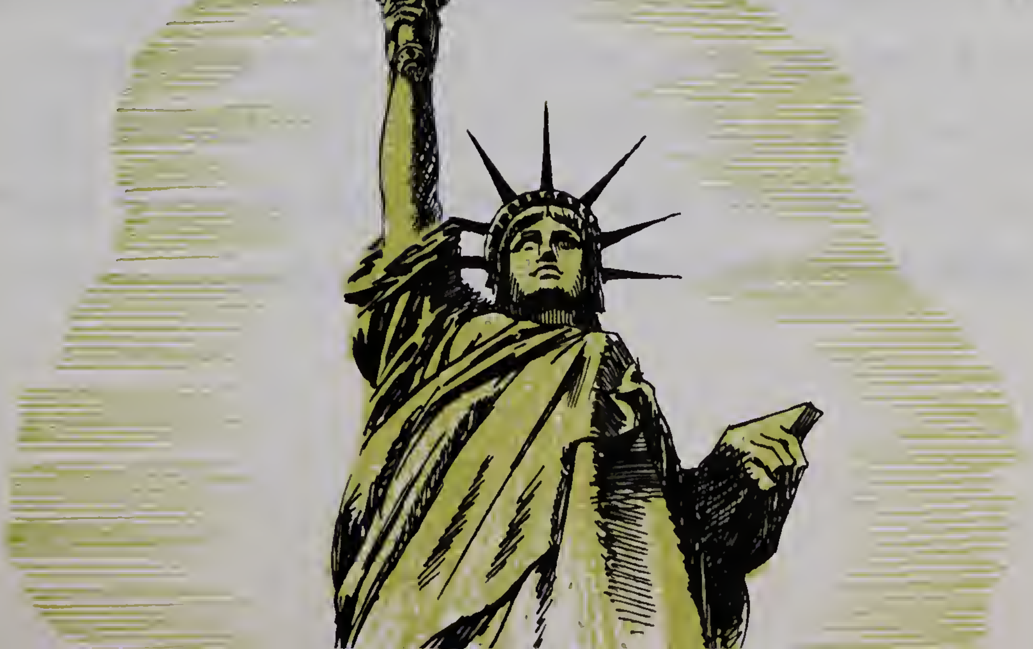
By 1900 the population of the United States had grown to more than 76,000,000. The doors had been opened wide to welcome immigrants who would fill up its vast territories. There were no restrictions on immigration until 1882, and even then the Americans barred only criminals, the insane, and paupers and placed some restrictions on immigration from China.

Newcomers approaching the harbour of New York looked eagerly to catch their first glimpse of the Statue of Liberty holding aloft the lamp of freedom. In the words of the poet, Emma Lazarus, words now engraved upon its pedestal, the Statue of Liberty seemed to be saying to Europe:

> "Give me your tired, your poor,
> Your huddled masses yearning to breathe free,
> The wretched refuse of your teeming shore,
> Send these, the homeless, tempest-tost, to me,
> I lift my lamp beside the golden door."

This "open door" policy brought many honest people who were willing to work hard to improve their lot, but it also brought a number of undesirable citizens who formed gangs to break the laws and make their fortunes by crime. Most of the newcomers could not speak English; they did not understand American customs; and they found it hard to adjust to life in the new land. Unscrupulous people pretended to be their friends and gave them work at starvation wages in "sweat-shops", often cold damp

The Statue of Liberty in the harbour of New York.



basements where men, women, and children worked long hours at piece-work, earning only enough to keep body and soul together.

In 1900 1% of the people owned nearly half the national wealth and every year received 15% of the national income. The rich were very rich and the poor were very poor. Since most people really believed that the United States was the land of opportunity where any poor man who worked hard could make a good living, it was many years before anything was done to improve conditions. Better labour laws have put an end to piece-work in sweat-shops. Greater efforts are made to help immigrants to learn to speak English. The United States now take in only a limited number of carefully selected immigrants, trying to make sure that they are honest people who will be able to support themselves.

Influenced by the teachings of Thomas Jefferson, the Americans set a pattern for the development of democratic government in many other countries. Immigrants eagerly accepted the idea which Lincoln declared was the centre of the American experiment: "that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth". Americans talked proudly of their country as "the land of freedom" and sometimes they forgot how many of the principles which underlay their freedom had been inherited from Great Britain.

With its growing population, its vast natural resources, its great wealth, its rapidly developing industries, its increased confidence in its fighting strength as a result of the Spanish American War, and its new responsibilities in the Philippines and in the West Indies, the United States in 1900 was well on its way to becoming the great power in world affairs that it is to-day.

37. Canada in 1900

"I see in the not remote distance one great nationality bound, like the shield of Achilles, by the blue rim of the ocean. I see it quartered into many communities, each disposing of its internal affairs but all bound together by free institutions, free intercourse and free commerce."

T. D'Arcy McGee: *Speech in the Legislative Assembly of Canada, May 2, 1860*

In 1900 Canada stood on the threshold of a period of great expansion. There had been a depression in the early nineties when jobs were scarce and prices were low, but by 1896 when Wilfrid Laurier became Prime Minister the tide was turning towards prosperity. Immigration had fallen off until in 1896 only 16,835 immigrants landed on Canadian shores, the lowest number since Confederation.

The government began an active campaign to attract settlers to the Canadian West. Advertisements in newspapers in Great Britain, in Europe, and in the United States told of the wonderful opportunities in western Canada where a man could claim a homestead of 160 acres for $10. Posters in railway stations displayed fields of golden grain ready for the harvest, fine cattle grazing in the pastures, tidy farm homes, and carried the hearty invitation, "Come to the Golden West". Immigration agents travelled far and wide telling all who would listen about the good farm lands which could be theirs for the asking. Excursion trains carried newspaper men and farmers at the government's expense across the country so they could see for themselves the wonderful opportunities Canada had to offer. Successful farmers who had been here a few years were given trips back to their homelands to encourage their fellow countrymen to come to Canada. By 1900 the stream of immigration was flowing freely again and by 1913 it had become a mighty river. In that year 400,870 people came to make new homes in Canada.

As in the United States, the "open door" policy of welcoming immigrants brought both good citizens and bad ones. Those who hoped to make a quick fortune without hard work were disappointed; those who were willing and able to work usually prospered. Since even our largest city, Montreal, had only 328,172 inhabitants in 1900, the slum problem was not as serious in Canada as it was in the United States. Most of the immigrants settled on farms or found work in the lumber camps or in construction on the railway or in the growing towns of the West.

There were few restrictions on immigration until after the First World War. As we have seen in Chapter 17 there were people in Quebec who thought that the land should be kept for the descendants of the people already here. But in the West there was plenty of land available and immigrants were welcomed to open up the country. The government wanted settlers on the land so there would be less danger of the Americans taking over the unsettled areas. Businessmen wanted workers for their factories and a larger population to buy their goods. Railway companies wanted workmen to build their lines and settlers on the land to produce crops to be shipped to the seaboard.

Because some of the ships in the early part of the century brought penniless people who could not support themselves and often landed sick and dying at the ports, the shipowners had to put up a bond which could be used to provide for any of their passengers who had to be looked after. Later a head tax was levied to provide for newcomers who got into difficulties. The only restrictions were against idiots, and deaf-mutes, and the insane, blind, and infirm who might become public charges, and even they were admitted if their families undertook to support them.

Newcomers from Asia were not so welcome. Chinese labourers were brought in about 1880 to help build the Canadian Pacific Railway, but the head tax on Chinese immigrants was gradually increased until it limited the number who could afford to come. Early in the twentieth century further restrictions were placed on immigration from Japan and India.

After the First World War Canada began tightening up her regulations about immigrants. Now the Department of Citizenship and Immigration decides who shall be allowed to come to Canada and immigrants are carefully selected.

Until 1900 the census which was taken every ten years after Confederation showed more people leaving Canada than entering the country. Farmers from the Atlantic Provinces and from Ontario moved on to the American Middle West; young people from Quebec flocked south of the border to find work in American factories; ambitious young men seeking jobs in business went to the big American cities where they thought the opportunities of making a fortune were greater than they were in Canada.

IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION

	IMMIGRATION	EMIGRATION
1851 - 1861	209,000	85,000
1861 - 1871	187,000	379,000
1871 - 1881	353,000	440,000
1881 - 1891	903,000	1,109,000
1891 - 1901	326,000	506,000
1901 - 1911	1,759,000	1,043,000
1911 - 1921	1,612,000	1,381,000

Figures from Canada Year Book 1957 - 58, p. 160

Farmers from eastern Canada, from Great Britain, from Europe, from the United States flocked into the West to break the virgin soil of the prairies. New railroads and branch lines were built, and towns and villages sprang up along the railway tracks. Lumber camps were kept busy during the winter providing material to build new houses and barns. Factories in the East expanded and new factories were built to produce farm machinery, binder twine, clothing, and household furniture for the growing population. Jobs were not hard to find, in building the railways, putting up telegraph poles, building the new towns and cities.

MANITOBA — 1871-1901

1871	25,228
1881	62,260
1891	152,506
1901	255,211

WINNIPEG — 1871-1901

1871	241
1881	7,985
1891	25,639
1901	42,340

WHITE COAL

The use of electric power is one of the marvels of our time. For some years man could generate electric power only by means of engines driven by steam produced by coal. This was expensive, unless there was a plentiful supply of coal near at hand. It was only towards the end of the nineteenth century that engineers realized that water-power — "white coal," as it has been called — could be used to generate electric power.

There are few countries in the world which possess as much available water-power as Canada. For a while Ontario was handicapped in producing electricity because it had to import its coal but once Canadians realized the possibilities of water-power, there was a great expansion in the production of electricity. At the end of the nineteenth century, the largest hydro-electrical plants in the world up to that time were built at Niagara, and as a result there was a great development of manufacturing in southern Ontario.

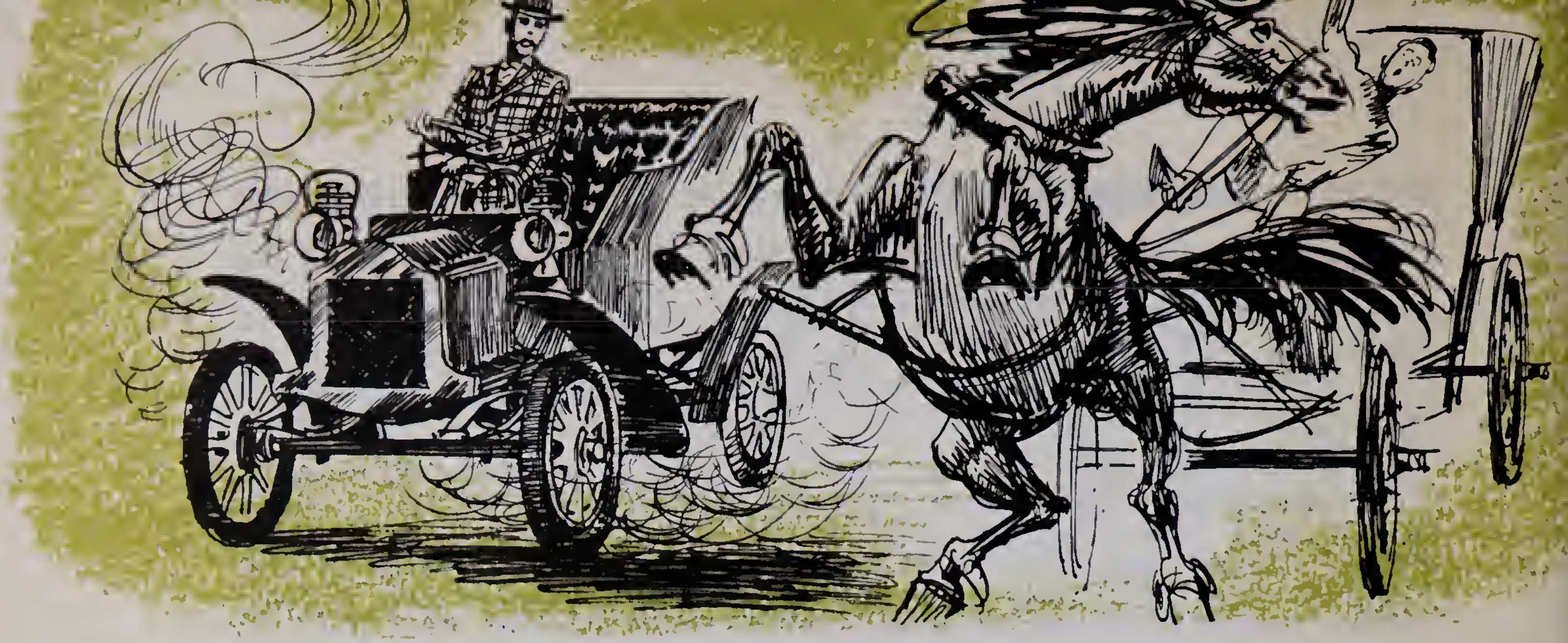
Even before the use of water-power for generating electricity, there had been electric power-plants in some of the more progressive cities and towns both in the east and in the west. Electric lights had replaced coal-oil lamps and gas jets in many homes. But rural electrification, which in recent years has revolutionized life in the villages and on the farms, was still far in the future.

The first electric appliance in common use was the doorbell. In 1900 there were no electric toasters, stoves, refrigerators, vacuum cleaners, floor polishers, washing machines, or lawn-mowers.

To people who came in from the country one of the great attractions in the cities was a ride on the electric streetcars. There had been horse-drawn streetcars in Toronto and Montreal as early as 1861 but the first electric railway appeared at the Toronto Exhibition in 1885. Imagine the excitement of the visitors to the Exhibition when they first saw this experimental electric railway! The next year electric cars ran from Windsor to Walkerville and in 1887 St. Catharines had seven miles of electric railway in operation. Other cities followed: Vancouver and Victoria in 1890, Ottawa in 1891, and Toronto and Montreal in 1892.

TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION

Railroads and steamships were pushing into territory where once the traveller had depended on the canoe, the dog-team, or the ox-cart. Motor-cars were still only for the very wealthy and were used in the cities and on good



To-day a traffic problem is caused by too many cars on the roads, but when the first automobiles appeared the problem was frightened horses.

roads near the cities. In 1904 there were only 535 automobiles in Canada and these were all in southern Ontario. Farmers hated the new invention because the noisy puffing cars frightened their horses. Many serious accidents took place when the terrified horses shied or ran away when they met the strange new "horseless carriages".

Aeroplanes had not yet been invented. It was not until 1903 that Orville and Wilbur Wright made their famous flight at Kitty Hawk, North Carolina, and not until 1909 that John McCurdy in his fifty-horse-power *Silver Dart* made the first flight in the British Empire at Baddeck Bay in Nova Scotia.

Telegraph lines were being strung all over the settled areas and brought news of the world to distant communities. In 1876 Alexander Graham Bell succeeded in establishing a telephone connection between Brantford and Paris, Ontario, a distance of eight miles. He immediately applied for patents on his invention in Canada, the United States, and in Great Britain. As a result of his invention Bell became a very wealthy man. The telephone has brought about great changes in business and social life, but in 1900 it was still considered a great marvel. Though many business places installed telephones, they were still a luxury and comparatively few homes enjoyed the advantages of the "talking wire".

There were, of course, no radios or television sets in 1900. Few dreamed that the day would ever come when people could turn a switch in their own homes and hear and see programmes from all over the world.

AGRICULTURE

In 1900 more than half the people lived in rural areas, on farms or in small towns or villages, or in the north trapping or hunting, or in lumber camps. Wheat was still the chief export. To-day (1961) exports of lumber products, including pulp and paper, exceed our wheat exports.

In 1900 farm machinery had made life easier for the farmer, but the machines were still drawn by horses or oxen. The gasoline engine was not yet in use. Steam-powered threshing-machines were taken from farm to farm to thresh the grain, and each farm woman worked hard to provide good fare for the day the threshers came to her place. There were no milking-machines and, though some farmers sent all their cream and milk to the creameries, most of the farm women churned their own butter and traded butter and eggs for goods at the stores in the nearest town.

PUBLIC HEALTH

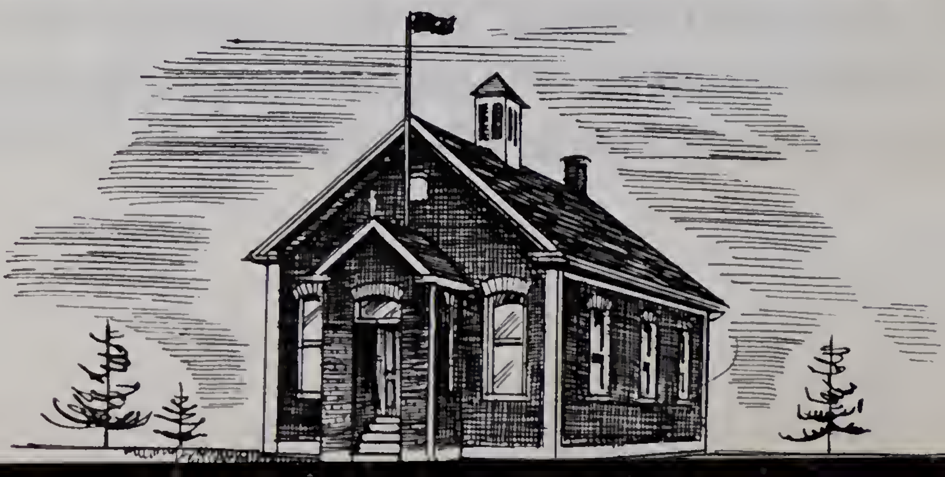
Two factors were helping to make Canadians aware of public health problems. One was the growth of cities. As soon as a large number of people settle in one place, the problem of a supply of pure water and of disposal of sewage and garbage becomes important. Unless the water is pure, and unless suitable provision is made for the disposal of sewage and garbage, terrible epidemics will take place. As the towns grew, waterworks systems were established and regulations made about garbage.

The other factor which brought about an improvement in public health was greater knowledge about the causes of diseases and how they are spread. Public health officials were appointed who had power to quarantine families in which any member had contracted a contagious disease. To-day we seldom hear of smallpox, typhoid, diphtheria, or scarlet fever. Even tuberculosis, which caused many deaths in 1900, has declined as a result of better sanitary conditions and greater knowledge about health. In 1900, although vaccination against smallpox had been common for years, inoculation against diphtheria, whooping-cough, and polio, such as we have to-day, was unknown.

EDUCATION

By 1900 all the provinces required cities, towns, and villages to establish free public schools, but compulsory education had not yet been introduced. Many people went to school only for a few years and some grew up unable to read or write. Schools opened quickly, however, in the new areas and hundreds of young women from the Atlantic provinces or from Ontario set out bravely to teach school on the prairies or in British Columbia. One of the difficult problems in the West was teaching the children who came from homes where no English was spoken. Normal schools where teachers could learn how to teach were established. Universities grew larger and new ones were established, with rapidly growing engineering, medical, and dental departments.

Although most of the school population of Ontario now attend graded schools, there are still many one-roomed schools in the country districts.



Taxes were low. A very large part of our taxes to-day goes for defence, for good roads, and for public welfare. During the Boer War at the end of the nineteenth century Canada began to take more responsibility for defence, and since that time there has been an increasing expenditure on the army, the navy, and the air force. This has, of course, increased our taxes, but this is an expense every independent nation has to bear.

In 1900 there were few good roads outside the cities. Even in the wealthier and more populous United States there were no concrete roads in 1908 and only 650 miles of macadamized road. Canada, of course, had still fewer miles of good road. The great network of roads which cost so much to build and to maintain were not needed then, since it is for motor-cars and trucks that these roads have been built. In 1900 few people imagined that Canadians would ever drive from coast to coast in their own cars.

Since people believed that everyone who could work and wanted to work could find a job, the government made no provision for the unfortunate. Each town was expected to look after its own poor and the lot of those who could not earn a living was unhappy indeed. The old, the sick, the crippled, the widows and orphans depended largely on the charity of kind people. There were no Family Allowances, no Old Age Pensions, no Unemployment Insurance for those who lost their jobs, no Workmen's Compensation for those who were injured at work. Government health programmes were in their infancy. Groups of citizens who thought something should be done to provide a hospital or a home for orphans in their community formed boards and collected money, but the government gave little or no help. The welfare services we have to-day cost money, but most Canadians believe that the government should take some responsibility for the welfare of its citizens.

Canadians spoke proudly of their country's vast natural resources, its rich fisheries, its fertile land, its mighty stands of timber, and its mineral wealth, but there is much more than they even dreamed of in 1900. The rich mineral deposits of northern Ontario, northern Quebec, and northern Manitoba had not yet been discovered, nor the oil of Alberta and Manitoba.

When Sir Wilfrid Laurier represented Canada at the Imperial Conference of 1897, he won respect for himself and for his country. He spoke repeatedly of Canada as a nation, not as a colony. In 1900 Canada had not reached the goal of independence within the British Commonwealth of Nations, but it had taken the first steps in that direction. The Canadian Parliament had the right to impose duties on goods coming from England; it decided whether or not Canada would take part in a war in which Britain was involved; it had taken control of the militia within its borders; and it was beginning to undertake greater responsibility for its own defence. Canada was growing up — marching steadfastly toward the day when it would take its place as an equal among the nations of the world.

POPULATION OF CANADA (TO NEAREST HUNDRED)

1861	3,230,000
1871	3,689,300
1881	4,324,800
1891	4,833,200
1901	**5,371,300**
1911	7,206,600
1921	8,787,900
1931	10,376,800
1941	11,506,700
1951	14,009,400
1961	18,040,000

Figures from Canada Year Book 1957 - 58, except 1961

For Further Study

1. Present a scene in a farm home in Ontario when the son of the family announces he is going out to the Klondike to make a fortune, and a second scene when he returns, successful or unsuccessful, from his travels, and tells them about his adventures.

2. Make a mural of the story of an adventurer who made his way to the Klondike. You might read Pierre Berton's *The Golden Trail* (Macmillan's Great Stories of Canada) or his book *The Klondike* (McClelland and Stewart).

3. Draw a map of western Canada, showing the routes by which people travelled to the Klondike, and marking on it the Yukon River, Klondike River, Dawson, Skagway, Chilkoot Pass, Lake Bennett, Lake LaBerge.

4. Prepare a scene in which a group of people discuss the new invention, the telegraph. One might maintain that it was wicked to make such a thing, another that it was dangerous, and others might predict what changes the new invention would make in their lives.

5. Imagine you are a missionary who has come back from Hawaii to visit your old home in New England. Give a speech describing Hawaii and asking for support for the missions.

6. On a map of the West Indies, mark Cuba and Puerto Rico.

7. Present a scene in which a group of Americans are discussing American policy at the time of the Spanish American War. Some would be happy about the new possessions the United States had gained. Others would argue that it was a great mistake for the United States to acquire territory outside of the continent of America.

8. Write an advertisement which might have appeared in a newspaper in a town where electric lights have just been introduced.

9. Imagine you are the first pupil from a school in a small Ontario town to ride on the electric street cars in Toronto. Describe your adventure to your classmates.

10. Dramatize a scene in an Ontario home when the father of the family announces that he is going to have a telephone installed in the house.

11. Make a poster which might have been used to attract settlers from Europe to the Canadian West.

12. Suppose that you are a group of students returning from school in Toronto the day the first automobile appeared on the streets. Present a scene showing your reactions.

13. Add a steamship of the period of 1900 to your *Book of Ships,* and, for contrast, a picture of a modern liner.

14. For your stamp collection see whether you can find the 1952 four-cent Hon. Alexander Mackenzie stamp, the 1926 five-cent Sir Wilfrid Laurier, and the 1946 four-cent Alexander Graham Bell.

BOOKS TO READ

Here is a list of books which you may enjoy and which you will find helpful. You may find some of them in the school library. The number after the title indicates the unit (or units) for which these books will be most useful.

Abraham Lincoln, J. H. Daugherty. Macmillan (V)
Abraham Lincoln, Clara Judson. Ryerson (V)
Abraham Lincoln, Manuel Komroff. "Lives To Remember Series". Macmillan (V)
Alberta, M. B. Ricker. Copp Clark (VII, VIII)
America, Land of Freedom, Gertrude Hartman. Copp Clark (I, III, V, VIII)
American Inventors, Clarence J. Hylander. Brett-Macmillan (III, VIII)
America's Robert E. Lee, Henry G. Comminger. Thomas Nelson (V)
Andrew Carnegie, Katherine B. Shippen. Random House (VIII)
Andrew Carnegie and the Age of Steel, Katherine B. Shippen. Copp Clark (VIII)

Backgrounds of American Freedom, Edna McGuire. Brett-Macmillan (I, III, V, VIII)
Black Falcon, Olive Knox. Ryerson (III)
Blow, Bugles Blow, M. P. Allen. Longmans, Green (V)
The Bold Heart, Josephine Phelan. Macmillan (VII)
The Boy Who Ran Away, Josephine Phelan. Macmillan (VII)
Boy With A Pack, Stephen Meader. Gage (III)
Boy's Book of the West, A. Hogeboom. Ambassador (V)
British Columbia, F. Boyes. Copp Clark (III, VI, VII, VIII)
Buckskin Brigadier, Edward McCourt. Macmillan (VII)
Buckskin Colonist, John F. Hayes. Copp Clark (III)
Buffalo Bill, D. S. Garst. Copp Clark (V)
Buffalo Harvest, Glen Rounds. Saunders (III, V)
Bugles in the Hills, John F. Hayes. Copp Clark (VII)

California, GRACE DAWSON. Brett-Macmillan (III)
California Gold Rush, MAY McNEER. Random House (III)
Canal Boy, MARION GREENE. Macmillan (I)
Cariboo Trail, CHRISTIE HARRIS. Longmans, Green (III)

Dale of the Mounted, JOE HOLLIDAY. Thomas Allen (VII)
Dale of the Mounted in the Arctic, JOE HOLLIDAY. Thomas Allen (VII)
Dale of the Mounted in the North West, JOE HOLLIDAY. Thomas Allen (VII)
Davy Crockett, STEWART HOLBROOK. Random House (III)
Davy Crockett, CONSTANCE ROURKE. Longmans, Green (III)
Discovering American History, JOHN A. RICKARD and ROLOR E. RAY. Macmillan

The Early Days of Automobiles in America, ELIZABETH JANEWAY. Copp Clark (VIII)
The Erie Canal, SAMUEL H. ADAMS. Random House (III)

Famous Canadian Stories, DONALD FRENCH. McClelland and Stewart
The First Transatlantic Cable, ADELE G. NATHAN. Copp Clark (VIII)
The Force Carries On, T. MORRIS LONGSTRETH. Macmillan (VII)
The Friendly Force, DOUGLAS SPETTIGUE. Longmans, Green (VII)
A Full-Grown Nation, EDNA McGUIRE. Brett-Macmillan (I, III, V, VIII)
Fur Trader, ROBERT FERGUSON. Macmillan (III)

General Brock and Niagara Falls, SAMUEL H. ADAMS. Copp Clark (II)
Gold in California, P. I. WELLMAN. Thomas Nelson (III)
The Golden Trail, PIERRE BERTON. Macmillan (VIII)
Great Americans, C. BERNARD RUTLEY. Macmillan (V, VIII)
The Great Chief, KERRY WOOD. Macmillan (III, VII)
The Growth of America, R. H. LIEBMAN and G. A. YOUNG. Ryerson (I, III, V, VIII)
The Growth of Democracy, EDNA McGUIRE and DON C. ROGERS. Brett-Macmillan (I, III, V, VIII)

He Wouldn't Be King, NINA K. BAKER. Copp Clark (I)
Here Is Alaska, EVELYN STEFANSSON. Saunders (III, VIII)
Here Is the Far North, EVELYN STEFANSSON. Saunders (VIII)

I Have Seen Quebec, MARIUS BARBEAU. Macmillan (I, VIII)
I Know A City, (New York City) KATHERINE B. SHIPPEN. Macmillan (I, VIII)
Ian of Red River, R. GUTTORMSSON. Ryerson (III)

Johnny Reb, M. P. Allen. Longmans, Green (V)
Jonathan Goes West, Stephen Meader. Longmans, Green (III)
Journeys Through the Americas, De F. Stull and Roy W. Hatch, rev. by Harold D. Drummond. Macmillan

The Little Town On the Prairie, Laura I. Wilder. Musson (V, VII)
The Long Winter, Laura I. Wilder. Musson (V, VII)

Make Way For the Brave, M. P. Allen. Longmans, Green (III)
The Making of A Democracy, Gertrude Hartman. Longmans, Green (I, III, V, VII, VIII)
Marcus and Narcissa Whitman, Pioneers of Oregon, James Daugherty. Macmillan (III)
Men Who Changed the World, Egon Larson. Dent (V, VIII)
Men Who Shaped the Future, Egon Larson. Dent (VIII)
Mounty in a Jeep, Morris T. Longstreth. Brett-Macmillan (VII)

Narcissa Whitman, Jeanette Eaton. Longmans, Green (III)
The Nor' Westers, Marjorie Wilkins Campbell. Macmillan (III)
Nova Scotia, P. Blakely and M. Vernon. Dent (I, III, VI, VIII)

Oregon Trail, Francis Parkman. Holt, Rinehart and Winston (III, V)

The Partick Steamboat, Captain Frank Knight. Macmillan (III)
Patsy Jefferson of Monticello, Martha Randolph. Clarke Irwin (I)
Perilous Prairie, Dickson Reynolds. Ryerson (VIII)
Picture Gallery of Canadian History, Volumes II and III, C. W. Jefferys. Ryerson (I, II, IV, VI, VII, VIII)
Picture History of Canada, J. McEwen and K. Moore. Thomas Nelson (I, II, IV, VI, VII, VIII)
The Pony Express, Samuel H. Adams. Random House (V)
The Pony Express Goes Through, H. R. Driggs. Longmans, Green (V)

The Queen's Cowboy, Kerry Wood. Macmillan (VII)

Railroad to Freedom, Hildegarde Swift. Gage (V)
Reaper Man: Cyrus McCormick, Clara Judson. Ryerson (III)
Rebel on the Trail, Lyn Cook. Macmillan (IV)
Rebels Hide at Night, John F. Hayes. Copp Clark (IV)
Red River Adventure, J. W. Chalmers. Macmillan (III)
Revolt in the West, Edward McCourt. Macmillan (VII)
Riders of the Pony Express, Ralph Moody. Thomas Allen (V)
The Rover, The Story of a Canadian Privateer, Thomas Raddall. Macmillan (I, II)

The Royal Canadian Mounted Police, E. Ritchie. Copp Clark (VII)

The Royal Canadian Mounted Police, Reprinted from the *Canada Year Book,* Dominion Bureau of Statistics (VII)

The Salt-Water Men, Joseph Schull. Macmillan (I, III, VIII)

Sante Fe Trail, Samuel H. Adams. Random House (V)

Saskatchewan, D. C. McLeod. Copp Clark (VII, VIII)

The Scarlet Force, T. Morris Longstreth. Macmillan (VII)

Silver Wolf, M. P. Allen. Longmans, Green (V)

The Story of British Columbia, John Gough. Dent (III, VII, VIII)

The Story of Canada's Coastal Fisheries, M. C. Vernon. Copp Clark (I, VIII)

The Story of James Stephenson, John Thomas. Oxford (III)

The Story of Newfoundland and Labrador, Frances Briffet. Dent (I, VI, VIII)

The Story of Ontario, J. M. Scott. Dent (I, III, VIII)

The Story of Our Canadian Northland, J. M. Scott. Copp Clark (III, VIII)

The Story of Our Country, (U.S.A.), E. C. Barker, M. Alsager, W. P. Webb. Copp Clark (I, II, III, V, VIII)

The Story of the Prairie Provinces, J. M. Scott. Dent (III, VII, VIII)

The Story of Wheat, Donalda Dickie. Copp Clark (VII, VIII)

Tales and Trails of Western Canada, Irene Craig and Nell Macvicar. Moyer (III, VII)

Tales of an Empty Cabin, Grey Owl. Macmillan (III)

The Talking Wire, O. J. Stevenson. Macmillan (VIII)

Tall Timber, John Gough. Copp Clark (III, VIII)

These United States and How They Came to Be, Gertrude Hartman. Brett-Macmillan (I, II, III, V, VIII)

Thomas Jefferson, Father of Democracy, Vincent Sheean (Landmark 36). Random House (I)

To You the Torch, F. M. Burwell and F. J. Clute. Macmillan (IV)

The Trail to Santa Fe, David Lavender. Thomas Allen (V)

Trails West and the Men Who Made Them, Edith Dorian and W. N. Wilson. McGraw Hill (III, V)

Treason at York, John F. Hayes. Copp Clark (IV)

Tree in the Trail, Holling C. Holling. Thomas Allen (V)

The United States, Story of a Free People, Samuel Steinberg. Macmillan (I, II, III, V, VIII)

Visual History of Canada, George L. Gray. British Book Service (I, II, III, IV, VI, VII, VIII)

The Western Hemisphere, De F. Stull and Roy W. Hatch, rev. by Harold D. Drummond. Macmillan
Western Lands, R. O. Hughes and C. H. W. Pullen, rev. by James F. Reed. Macmillan
Wild Bill Hickok, D. S. Garst. Copp Clark (V)
Wild Bill Hickok Tames the West, Stewart Holbrook. Copp Clark (V)
The Wright Brothers, Henry Thomas. Longmans, Green (VIII)
Wyatt Earp, U.S. Marshal, Stewart Holbrook. Copp Clark (V)

Young Mac of Fort Vancouver, M. J. Carr. Ambassador Books (III)
Young Man in a Hurry, Jean L. Latham. Musson (VIII)
The Young Surveyor, Olive Knox. Ryerson (VII)

FOR TEACHER REFERENCE

The Ardent Exile; The Life and Times of D'Arcy McGee, Josephine Phelan. Macmillan
Basic Documents in Canadian History, James T. Talman. McClelland and Stewart (I, II, III, IV, VI)
Brown of the Globe, J. M. Careless. Macmillan (VI)
Canada: Story of Challenge, J. M. Careless. Macmillan
Dominion of the North, Revised Edition, 1957, Professor Donald Creighton. Macmillan
The Firebrand, William Kilbourn. Clarke Irwin (IV)
History of the United States, C. P. Hill. Macmillan (I, III, V, VIII)
John A. Macdonald, The Young Politician, Professor Donald Creighton. Macmillan (VI)
John A. Macdonald, The Old Chieftain, Professor Donald Creighton. Macmillan (VII)
The Man Who Had to Hang, (Riel), E. B. Osler. Longmans, Green (VII)
The North West Company, Marjorie Wilkins Campbell. Macmillan (III)
The Story of Canada, Professor Donald Creighton. Macmillan

PIONEER BOOKS

Authentic Letters from Upper Canada, Rev. Thomas Radcliff, editor. Macmillan
Early Travellers in the Canadas, Gerald Craig, editor. Macmillan
The Letters and Journals of Simon Fraser, 1806-1808, edited, with an Introduction by W. Kaye Lamb, Dominion Archivist. Macmillan
Life in the Clearings, Susanna Moodie, edited by Robert L. McDougall. Macmillan

Old Toronto, Excerpts from John Ross Robertson's "Landmarks of Toronto", edited by E. C. KYTE. Macmillan

Sixteen Years in the Indian Country, the Journal of Daniel Williams Harmon. Edited and introduced by W. KAYE LAMB, Dominion Archivist. Macmillan

Pioneer Days in Ontario, L. J. HENRY and G. PATERSON. Ryerson (I, III)

Pioneer Life, E. C. GUILLET. Ontario Publishing Company (I, III)

Pioneer Settlements, E. C. GUILLET. Ontario Publishing Company (I, III)

Pioneer Social Life, E. C. GUILLET. Ontario Publishing Company (I, III)

Pioneer Travel, E. C. GUILLET. Ontario Publishing Company (I, III)

Roughing it in the Bush, SUSANNA MOODIE. McClelland and Stewart (I, III)

Chronicles of Canada Series is now out of print but copies should be available from the Public Libraries. For individual titles please see the Teachers' Manual for *Canada Our Country, Part 2.*

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